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MUCH as has been written about Napoleon Bonaparte, it may be doubted whether his character has yet been faithfully drawn. They have lived too near his time to take a calm view of his lineaments and dimensions. Dazzled by the splendour of his successes, one party has placed him above every general and potentate of ancient or modern times,—as something like an incarnation of genius, in the highest and most universal sense of the word. Another, but much the less numerous, has depreciated him so far as to sink him to a level with ordinary military adventurers,—the creature of his times—one whom circumstances alone, and a certain tact in turning them to advantage, raised above his fellows. Few—very few—are the writers who have been uninfluenced by partialities or enmities of some kind, and fewer still who have pretended to estimate his general character from his particular qualities. To condemn or to praise in the gross, has been a shorter and less troublesome mode of dealing with him. They have uniformly represented him as above or below humanity—as a demi-god, or a charlatan. Both opinions are offensive to the common judgment of mankind,—in fact, insults to common sense. If Napoleon had no superior qualities of any kind, how came he to reach a height of fame and power unattained by any other man of his age? If, on the other hand, he had all the transcendent genius ascribed to him by his professed idolaters, how came he to fall so low? At the sight of two extremes so striking, so unexampled, every rational mind would infer, either that he had failings equally great with his lofty qualities, or that he was, in the one case, the hero, in another the victim of circumstances of which no parallel is to be found in the history of the world. A calm and close observer will, perhaps, find that both inferences are needful to help us to the truth.

Col. Mitchell belongs to the depreciatory class of Bonaparte's biographers. This he avows. He warns his readers not to expect "any repetition of the lofty praise so generally bestowed on the genius, talents, or the amiability even, of the late emperor of the French." "Historical romances," in his favour, are to be found in "a thousand volumes," and to them, the reader who is fond of romance may have recourse. "The avowed object" of the author "is to dispel the many illusions excited by so many fables, and to place an historical character, divested of the false halo that events and party zeal have cast around it, on a fair pedestal of historical truth;" which pedestal is a very humble footstool, so low that everybody must stoop to behold it. If the class in question were not on the increase, such a book as the one before us would not attract our notice. But, independently of this consideration, Col. Mitchell endeavours to give something like a reason for his disparagement of Napoleon; and he, therefore, claims more respect than the blind herd of assailants. This is particularly the case in the military portion of the work, where his positions are, in our opinion, frequently impregnable. More than once, Napoleon himself allowed that, as a general, he had committed grave errors. Indeed he went so far as to say, that, prior to his exile, which afforded him so much leisure for studying the military commentators on the great wars of the age of Louis XIV., he had been ignorant of the scientific principles of the art—leaving us

consequently to infer that his successes were owing not to his own merit so much as to the valour of his troops, and the support of his generals. But by such a confession he loses nothing: on the contrary, he rises considerably in our estimation, as proving by it both his modesty, and his capability of forming a right estimate of the subject. Whatever he may have said of himself, few unprejudiced men will hesitate to esteem him as, perhaps, the ablest general of his age. We may be told, by military men, that, as civilians, our opinion is worth nothing. In reply, we might observe, that we have yet to learn in what the assumed superiority of our military historians consists. In the first place, they are as much divided among themselves, not merely concerning the general estimate of a leader's qualities, but the merits of any particular engagement, as any other class of writers, and, consequently, they can lay no claim to our regarding them as authority. When the Napiers have learned to write like the Mitchells, we may be brought to suspect that they have some right to the assumption. In the second place, unless their superior knowledge were intuitive, we should be at a loss to understand how, or when, it has been acquired. With the exception of the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, which is designed for the artillery only, we have no scientific nursery for our officers; and we have no particular reason to suppose that after they have bought their grades, they devote much of their time to the study of the great masters of the art. Nor is this opinion peculiar to ourselves: it is shown, to a considerable extent, by some of the more enlightened members of the profession:—

"The British troops, though the first to check the soldiers of revolutionary France, were the last with whom they came into decisive contact. Under the administration of Mr. Pitt, England had recovered from the losses sustained during the ill-conducted American War, but had derived no military knowledge from the fatal contest. Her resources had improved; but her armies were feeble in numbers, and wretched in organization. This was owing partly to the antiquated notion, that regular armies are dangerous to constitutional freedom; and partly, also to the mistaken belief, that an insular and commercial nation can require maritime forces only, and is independent of trained and disciplined soldiers. The practice of selling military rank was also attended with injurious consequences. This practice, derived from the dark ages, long abolished in every other country in Europe, and disgraceful to an enlightened nation, caused, and still causes, the science of arms to be so entirely disregarded in Britain, that there is not at this day a single known work on the higher branches of the art of war in the English language, though the richest of all modern languages in every other department of literature. Young men of fortune, conscious that they could purchase preferment, were mostly indifferent to professional matters; and the less wealthy, fully aware that knowledge and merit would be of no avail without money, were ready enough to prefer amusement to study, and trust to chance for professional success. Military knowledge—from the knowledge required by governments and War Ministers, showing the services on which troops can be effectually employed, down to the knowledge required for commanding regiments, companies, and armies—was therefore totally wanting."

Throughout this just censure, the present tense is as applicable as the past: and so long as money is admitted to be the chief passport to military rank, the warning voice will be raised in vain.

In an introductory book, Colonel Mitchell reviews the life of Napoleon prior to the disastrous expedition into Russia. We will briefly glance at some of his remarks.

We learn from Colonel Mitchell that there is probability at least for inferring that the Bona-

parte family was of Spanish rather than of Italian descent. In Majorca there was a family of the name as early as the thirteenth century; but whether it was originally derived from Provence, or from Genoa, is doubtful. It was incontestably a noble family. In 1411 Don Hugo Bonaparte, a jurist of considerable ability, and the direct ancestor of Napoleon, removed to the island of Corsica, and became president of the council. But another branch still remained in Majorca; for, in 1521, we find Baptista Bonaparte one of the nobles opposed to the insurgent commons, and in loyal communication with the Emperor Charles V., sovereign of the Balearic Isles. Whether, in the violent struggles which ensued, the said Baptista and his connexions found a grave, or whether the family became extinct by other and slower causes, we have no means of ascertaining; but, in 1650, no trace of the family was any longer to be found.

Whatever may have been the origin of the Bonaparte family, Carolo, father of Napoleon, was poor. The future hero was educated free of expense to his family; first, at the Military College of Brienne, and, subsequently, at the Military Academy in Paris. For some time his promotion was slow: in 1794, his situation and prospects were so discouraging (he had just paid his addresses in vain to a rich old maid) that he had determined to leave France for ever, and enter the military service of Turkey. Had he done so, he would probably have anticipated Mohammed Ali in the pashalic of Egypt, and ultimately dethroned the race of Othman. Southey has speculated on the probable effect of John Wesley's acceptance of the offer made him by the Dublin linen-merchant, Mr. Colley (ancestor of the Wellesleys, and author of their fortunes), to adopt him as heir, on the condition of locating himself in Ireland with his proposed benefactor. There would have been, we are told, no conquering Wellington, and Europe might have been, at this moment, subject to Napoleon. Be that as it might, his introduction to Barras, his union with Josephine, and his appointment to the army of Italy, afforded Napoleon the opportunity of developing the talents which nature had given him, more abundantly than any other man of his age. From this moment the throne of Charlemagne, rather than that of the Amuraths, was the constant object of his ambition—though, in his expedition to Egypt, he evidently contemplated the union of both.

Whether in his Italian and Egyptian campaigns, Napoleon committed the atrocities imputed to him by Col. Mitchell, we shall not inquire. The task would be an ungracious one; for, after all deductions, guilt enough would attach to his memory. This was not the way to obtain the gigantic objects which he had in view; and his failure before Acre should have opened his eyes to the difficulties of his position. It seems to have had no such effect. To revolutionize all Syria; to augment his army by multitudes of men discontented with the sway of the Pasha; to reach Constantinople, and at once declare that the house of Othman had ceased to reign; to found a new empire surpassing in splendour all that had preceded it; and return to Paris by Adrianople and Vienna, were, as Bourrienne informs us, his avowed schemes. How far they might have succeeded under more favourable circumstances,—had his troops been less rapacious, and the English less firm,—need not be conjectured. It is evident that these were the only serious obstacles which he had to encounter. The genius and valour of Sir Sydney Smith proved that he was not invincible; and rendered the Turks (the most rigid of fatalists) no longer unwilling to oppose him. These pro-

jects, unrivalled for grandeur, may now be stigmatized as "gigantic rhodomontade." And thus it is that mankind judges of all projects;—their intrinsic greatness is nothing, the result everything.

In alluding to the system of extortion pursued by all the officers, whether military or civil, whether of the republican or the imperial government, our author is generally right. But when he describes it as invariably,—as without exception,—he displays an *animus* which we are sorry to see. He may be assured that Talleyrand, whom he expressly condemns, accumulated no "vast fortune" by such rapacity. If he will look into Savary, he will perceive that Talleyrand was frequently poor, and at one time so much so, that he was glad to sell his town residence, which the emperor, with much good feeling, purchased at more than its value. Sometimes, too, even in military matters, our author is wrong. Thus, he tells us that the French obtained a complete victory at Friedland; but Savary, who was present, and conversed with the emperor on the subject, intimates that such another victory would have been their destruction. "It is well," added Napoleon, "that the enemy has retreated during the night;" if they had not, the French must. Nor can we wholly acquit the author of undue severity in regard to Napoleon's vanity. He was vain, no doubt; but who, after such unrivalled prosperity, would have been less so? He spoke with contempt of his enemies,—true: and had they not taught him to do so? Before we charge him with preposterous confidence, we must look at his peculiar notions of fate,—that he believed in an over-ruling destiny,—a power which went so far as even to destroy free-will. Previous to his disastrous expedition to Russia, he looked upon himself as the "man of destiny," as designed by Heaven to change entirely the face of the earth. Coupling this deeply-rooted impression with his past successes, who can wonder at his occasional utterance of language, which, though in other men it would justly expose them to contempt, was not unnatural in him? Then consider his vast resources, which so greatly fostered that confidence. He led into Russia between four and five hundred thousand men; and his reserves were as numerous. And after his retreat from Russia, after losing three-fourths of his army, he was able to appear in Germany at the head of other bodies of men of equal magnitude with those which he had led to perish in the wars of the north. With resources so boundless, and after triumphs so unrivalled, we cannot surely be surprised at his confidence: would any other hero have been more moderate?

From these observations, which we make in the mere spirit of justice, we shall not be suspected of blindness to the faults or the vices of Napoleon. If he had great faults, he had also great merits; and though we should be sorry to say that the latter ought to throw the former into the shade, they should undoubtedly have their weight in forming a general statement of his character. It would not be difficult to convict other enemies,—his contemporaries, too,—of crimes as great as his, without the same compensating qualities.

Col. Mitchell is very severe on Bernadotte, who indeed is no favourite of ours. We never could discover the great talents, military or administrative, so liberally ascribed to him—when did prosperity fail to create flatterers? If he did not really turn, he appeared to turn at the critical time; and as Russia had conquered Finland, he stipulated with his brother-robber, Alexander, for Norway, which suited him far better. There is something detestable in this act of spoliation,—more so, in our opinion, than in the partition of Poland, which, however ini-

quitous, was sanctioned by one part of the Polish diet. But neither Finland nor Norway was consulted about a change of masters; and the ill-used Danish monarch vainly protested against the abominable outrage.

Severe as our author is on the military conduct of Napoleon during the Russian expedition, he is almost equally so on that of the Russians themselves. He will allow no generalship to either party. And he is scarcely more willing to allow the Russians either feeling or patriotism. He will not, for instance, admit that they burnt Moscow. There he may be right; for it is difficult to understand their object in such an act: the rigour of the climate and the want of provisions would have inevitably destroyed the French, had the city been preserved. But, in other respects, he is glaringly unjust. If the Russians did not exhibit patriotism in the defence of their country, no people ever did. They submitted without a murmur to the severest privations; and they showed as much valour as their invaders in every action during both the advance and the retreat. Equal, or nearly equal injustice, is done to both parties during the campaign of 1813 in Germany, and of 1814 in France. That errors were committed by both, is likely enough; but there was no need to exaggerate them, and still less to deny that they were redeemed by opposite proofs of skill. Does our author consider himself infallible? He certainly criticizes military movements as if he had no doubt of it.

The first abdication of Napoleon is condemned as pusillanimous. It might be so; but we must not forget that the French were tired of their ruler, on account of the dreadful sacrifices which they had made. And what hope of a successful resistance with such vast hostile armies in the south, the north, and the heart of France? There was no rational hope at all. Napoleon is more justly censurable for leaving Elba at the time he did,—before the allied armies were dispersed, and while the sovereigns were in actual deliberation on the fate of Europe. That he had reason to rely on the army, and on the greater portion of the public functionaries, is clear from the result. But to expect for a moment that he could resist the Allies, or that he would be suffered to retain the throne, was so wild as to be scarcely credible. That in his second abdication he was also pusillanimous, we must deny. If longer resistance was hopeless on the former occasion, it was more so on this. His army had disappeared, and there was no prospect of seeing another half so large as the one already destroyed, though that had not been able to arrest the progress of a small portion of the hosts opposed to him. His only resource was submission.

The last events of Napoleon's life cannot give an Englishman much pleasure. Without entering into the question how far the Allied Powers were justified in sending him to St. Helena, we are sure that a magnanimous enemy would have remembered that the prisoner, with all his faults, had been lord of Europe! Would that the last scene of this hero's life were blotted from the page of English history!

But we must conclude. Though compelled to censure the tone of Col. Mitchell's book, we repeat our conviction that he writes honestly. Writing, too, after such abundant materials have been collected by others, he is enabled to add many details which have not before appeared in any one book, though they are to be found scattered in many.

The Levite; or, Scenes Two Hundred Years Ago. By Elizabeth Murphy. 3 vols. Ollivier. ALL good things seem to have in them an original sin—haunting them as the necessary com-

plement of their good. Each of the great gifts which man has, from time to time, received at the hands of genius or of science, has brought with it its "own exceeding great" drawback. The evil is, too, for the most part, in the ascending ratio of the good. Thus, it needs all the treasures of thought and intellect which have been carried, by the invention of printing, into the fallow places of the world, to reconcile us to the unspeakable amount of twaddle which has been let loose upon the earth by the press. And this, which is true of the general, has been true, also, of its particulars. What have we not paid for the advent of the great spirits who have ruled the minds or the imaginations of men! What a world of wasted hearts and *âmes incomprises* was generated by the muse of Byron!—What hecatombs of common sense, and reams of paper, and stores of critical patience, have been sacrificed to the poetical *εὐδολον* which he set up!—And then again, Sir Walter Scott:—for many an hour of pain beguiled and care forgotten, at the bidding of his spells, the world is, and is to be, his incalculable debtor; but from that debt a large deduction must, nevertheless, be made, and placed to the mischievous side of the account, for the amount of trial which he has entailed upon critic and reader by the invention and bequest of the Historical Novel.

Amid the universal rush into print which is the vice of the day, (for a vice it is which is fast tending to reverse the fitting ratio between writers and readers,) it is strange that they whose range is lowest will yet aim highest. Surely, amid all the wide common lands and pastures lying about Parnassus, there is many a quiet nook and pleasant path that the humble literary pilgrim might tread,—catching in all their winding ways some breath of the sacred air that blows ever from the mountain—without making a dash at the summit, or entering, with an easy and smirking air, into roads, every inch of which is hallowed by the foot of genius, and whose vistas are consecrated by the statues of the Immortal. Not that we are for any enclosures in Parnassus other than those magic ones which genius makes for itself—any allotments save such as the charmed and subdued imaginations of men freely and gratefully concede;—but up those paths where even the "angels" of intellect "fear to tread," or tread very reverently, it provokes us to see the unfurnished saunterer pass—walking hither and thither as much at his ease as if he were not on haunted ground,—looking about him, with a self-sufficient air, as one familiar with all the spirits of the place,—handling the flowers, as though he knew the secret of their training, or had penetrated the mystery of their matchless fragrance and undying hues,—and complacently twining them into garlands for his own dull head—where they die, at once, of their atmosphere. Really, some of the modern pilferings amid the marvels of Sir Walter Scott's romance-world, raise to the mind the very figure of Paddy unconcernedly cutting slips from the rose-trees in Eden, to plant in his own potato-ground.

All this it would be scarcely worth while to say, for the sake of the individual work before us, if it did not belong to a class—and were not, in its exaggeration of the abuses of that class, a fitting occasion for their condemnation. We have seen no parody upon the school of Scott so glaring and absurd as this,—at once from the multiplication of its circumstances of imitation, the directness and inartificiality of that imitation, and the inapprehensiveness of spirit and air of easy self-sufficiency which preside over all. The scene is laid in the midst of the parliamentary struggle with Charles the First; and Puritan and Cavalier, of course, furnish the contrasts which affect to clothe themselves in

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the manner of Sir Walter. Of the author's favourites among the former party (which, by the way, the lady adopts,) we shall only say that they are—though she does not see it—a set of unprincipled personages; and that the very contrivances which she attributes to them, and which are intended for our approbation, would strike the spurs from any hero under the sun, in the court of true Romance:—and as for one of her heroines, the Lady Julia, wishing the cavalier who ultimately wins her all joy of his bargain, we should, nevertheless, if he were a friend of ours, have great fears for his peace and respectability.

It would be idle to follow the authoress through any of the incidents of her tale,—merely shuffled together as they are, with scarcely an attempt at connexion. Treasons are committed and principles changed, on pretences the most frivolous and by means impossible; and the actors jostle each other like men at a fair, but never segregate into groups having an intelligible attitude and purpose. All Sir Walter Scott's *Curiosities of Character* are brought together, as by a sort of omnium-gatherum, in these pages—only the authoress is generally content with the curiosity, and leaves out the character. The idea of a *fair*, above alluded to, is well sustained, too, by these special personages; who bear just that kind of grotesque relation to their great dramatic originals which furnishes the more intellectual *delicia* of such a place. Mysterious dwarfs, to whom stone walls apparently oppose no obstacle, and for whom even keyholes would seem to be a superfluity;—inspired maidens, in whose darkened minds, as in the Camera Obscura, the figures of things are seen few and inverted;—dumb men, who turn out not to be dumb; after all—and who, when they speak at last, might as well give us some reason why they had not spoken before;—blind girls, who also are of that worst class of the blind who *won't see*;—foundlings, who all contrive to get into such comfortable quarters that one wonders they should ever seek their fathers;—strange, wild, unaccountable persons, of all kinds, are presented with a liberality so profuse, that if the authoress had taken her change out of the presentment, as she lawfully might, there would have been to spare abundantly for two or three novels more. Indeed, these *foundlings* are in especial abundance. Almost everybody in the volumes is in one of two predicaments—either having lost a child of his own by some mysterious disappearance, or got one in the house which does not belong to him. Few of the characters in whom it is intended that we shall take most interest are in that degree of wisdom which is tested by “knowing their own fathers.” A wonderful amount of mystification is produced by all this,—yet, somehow, one never feels greatly at a loss. Sudden appearances create no surprise; and unexpected discoveries are accepted as ordinary food. Everybody is known to everybody,—yet nobody knows anybody. Again, everybody belongs to somebody else—and nobody to himself.

This same pleasant confusion, prevailing amongst the characters, extends also to the incidents. One is not the parent of another. Every now and then, we have some episode intruded,—like the death-bed scene of Hampden's daughter,—which has no relation to the story at all, before or after—positively a *foundling* incident. There is no accounting for the presence of such scenes in the work, but as discussions introduced for the purpose of letting the authoress show her hand at sketching. And what daubs these sketches are—drawing and colour, but most of all design! The writer is of the kind who will present an animal, with a pair of horns elaborately, though badly, drawn,

and call it a unicorn. But, generally, the scenes and incidents shift about in such a manner, that it is hard, at any time, to discover their relationship. So rapid are the transitions of place, that we absolutely seem to be in a great many at once—in defiance of Sir Boyle Roche. We are not quite sure of the geography, either;—we have doubts whether the authoress has not some idea that Lyons is in the north of France. The manner of the more regular incidents is this:—If a lady, for instance, escaping from a nest of Puritans, has to take a particular turning—on which her safety depends—she rides past it, of course, (that is, of course in this narrative; in real life, she would, of course, take the turning;) and falls into another snare, in consequence. Thus, we obtain a new incident,—one which, like the last, neither advances nor retards the action—is no portion whatever of a plot. So free are they all from any mutual dependence or progression, that one of them may be left out—and never missed. Events like these are just so many dramatic *culs-de-sac*, up which the actors walk, turn round, and come out again—being exactly where they were before, as regards their advance over the road of the story. Heroes and heroines are continually riding along narrative-alleys that lead to nothing—marching up episcopal hills only that they may march down again. But long ere we have reached the end of these pages, we have ceased to entertain any fears for most of our characters, ride they where they will. We are never overtaken in their company by a body of grim-looking Puritan troopers, for instance, without peering for the concealed twinkle of the cavalier eye beneath what we, by this time, know of a certainty to be a disguise. The thing has happened to us so invariably that we have confidence in the sameness of our author's invention;—and we are bound to say that she keeps faith with us, to the end.

But, to return to the characters borrowed from Scott; who has lent, however, only their figures cut in pasteboard—and very badly. Of course, we have troopers who wield the sword of the Lord and of Gideon; and publican expounders of the text, after the fashion of the master—how *very far after*, we need not say! Of course, too, we must have the page variegated with the Scotch dialect; and accordingly, this department of the imitation is committed to the execution of a handmaiden of the Lady Julia; who so manages it, that we know not if our readers could follow her, being Englishwomen,—but we are quite sure hers is a foreign language anywhere north of the Tweed, and all over the border. Then, we have Leah, in honour of Rebecca,—and Lady Florence, because of Annot Lyle,—and a couple of antiquaries, for the sake of Monkbarrow,—and a scene of treasure-seeking, not quite in the spirit of Dousterswivel,—and the burying alive of a lady in a nunnery, to countenance the Abbess of St. Clair,—and the battle of Brentford as a pendant to Bothwell Brig,—and a superstitious vision, on its eve, to match the *Bodach Glas*,—and—and;—in fact, we have as many of the Scott figures as will stand in the page; and they are such mere shadows in this their translation, that it will hold a great many of them. And then, how all these several personages talk! The instant any one of them opens his lips, what little likeness he brought with him on his thin face fades away. Phantoms are they all! “Their bones are marrowless, their blood is cold; there is no speculation in their eyes.” Their voice gives no echo, however faint, of the great master. We would try the strength of our readers' endurance with a sample from the converse of the Antiquaries, if we could reconcile it to our conscience to occupy them with such intoler-

able—we cannot help it—twaddle. Nor has the authoress—or her school in general—the slightest hesitation as to who she puts in action. Cromwell or Hampden, Henrietta Maria or Charles, is thrust forward with the easy indifference of an utter unconsciousness, and made to talk as glibly as the interlocutors of the Minerva Press. The haughty and mischievous Henrietta of England—who stood foster-mother to a rebellion—forms bosom attachments with maidens of low degree; between whom and her Majesty grows up the sworn love of school-girls and passes the chat of milliners. The problems of history, too, which even yet involve the doubts and engage the controversies of good and thoughtful men, are disposed of by this author in a word. None of them present the slightest difficulty to her. The verdicts of posterity are anticipated, with a flippancy that shows the lady's perfect certainty on their subject; and the rewards and punishments of the awful future distributed, with as much assurance as if she, too, had had a “Vision of Judgment.”

Perhaps the master curiosity of the volumes is the machinery which finally unravels—or undertakes to unravel—its mysteries. Considering the confusion in which the characters are, as we have said, continually involved, and the number of unclaimed children who have to be accounted for, we have all along felt, in our reading, the probability that the authoress might unconsciously drop some of them by the way. We will not undertake to say whether she has done this or not. So sudden and summary is the distribution of these children, at the last, that we cannot be sure of their being all provided for. Never was such a compendious untangling of knots:—it is all done in two pages. The foundlings are dealt round as a pack of cards might be—falling, as it seems to us, very much by chance. Certainly, for any necessary or intelligible connexion which there is in the matter, we can feel no confidence that every gentleman has got his own.

Of a book like this it may seem scarcely worth while to notice the slipshod style; but that it is a common vice of this school of imitators,—and we desire, once for all, to hold up to them the mirror. This lady is one of a very numerous class of writers, (not confined to the particular school,) who insist upon making gentlemen, *protégés* of some one or another. But turning from the wide field of French and Italian solecism, let us confine ourselves to English slovenlinesses and false syntax.—“The house-bell was violently pulled with violence;”—“Higgot was really aggravated when he looked up;”—“think not rebels! that I will yield to thee” (this confusion of numbers is very common with the authoress, and with her school);—“his bravery and great daring (for he was by no means a coward);”—“that hope was scarcely inspired than it began to fade;”—“John Hotham, whom she felt sure would accompany the king to Oxford;”—“the confusion of the court fatigued and annoyed her, and only that she was under the protection of her kind and beloved friend the Duchess, she would have preferred living in the meanest cottage;”—are such examples as may be found in nearly every page. The dying Elizabeth Knightley smiles “a last good-bye” to her husband and friends;—and Eva, one of the heroines of the story, about to leave her household gods, meets the cat on the stairs,—and bursts into a fresh fit of weeping; for the cat had “loved her. She was not ungrateful to Puss.”

As we have said, we desire that the mere *serum pecus* of the Historical Novel should see their own absurdity, in this book. The qualities and accomplishments are great and many which must go to the successful execution of a work of

the class; and where these are wanting, this is one of the forms of literary failure least to be forgiven,—because of its pretension—of the brilliant examples of the class that should have operated as warnings, not lures,—and of the danger which the cause of historical truth incurs from the attempt by inferior hands. There are few of the faults or follies of these volumes which are not common to the historical novel in general, when undertaken by the half-educated half-thinker—but we know not that we have anywhere seen such an aggregate and concentration of them all.

The History of Ceylon, from the Earliest Period to the Present Time; with an Appendix containing an Account of its Present Condition.
By William Knighton, Esq., Colombo. Longman & Co.

CEYLON, one of the most fertile, important, and interesting of our colonial possessions, can never be regarded by us with indifference at any period of its eventful history. Independently, however, of this selfish consideration, it has many claims to our attention. Not the least of these is the well-known fact, that if it was not the cradle of a religion professed by two or three hundred millions of human beings, it was, for many ages, the holiest sanctuary of Buddhism, and possibly one scene of the labours of the last deified mortal who, under the name of Gautama Buddha, effected, long before the Christian era, a mighty revolution in the opinions and practices of men. It was no less the seat of the Pali language and literature, which do offer, and for ages to come will continue to offer, a striking as well as attractive study to the learned. We, indeed, who live in the infancy of such researches, cannot expect to be much benefited by them; but the day will surely come when the ancient connexion between India and Persia, between them and Chaldea, and between all and Egypt, will be freed from the darkness which now rests upon it. The progress may be slow: not once in ten generations can we expect such devotion and such success as signalized the illustrious Anquetil du Perron; but every new collection is valuable; and in time posterity will have the accumulation required, which must then be purified by criticism from the legendary alloy that eastern fancy has diffused through the whole.

Of such criticism there is little evidence in the volume before us. There is yet, indeed, a deficiency of materials for its exercise. The task of students is, and must long remain, one of collection. Still we should scarcely have expected so blind a leaning to the native authorities, which abound with extravagancies characteristic of oriental narratives. The author sees everything through a native medium: he has little weighing of evidence, and less of the calm, rigid adherence to reason which we have a right to expect from an historian of the nineteenth century. But with this serious drawback, the book is a welcome because it is a useful one,—because, to the general reader it presents, in a convenient compass, most of the leading facts of Ceylonese history.

Few readers would be prepared to hear that this island boasts of an independent line of princes, from Wijeya, who ascended the throne 543 years before Christ, to Wickrama Singha, whom the British deposed in 1815. This line, too, we are told, is equally uninterrupted through one hundred and seventy potentates, many of whom are represented as exceeding in power, in wisdom, and in patriotism all the monarchs of their age. It is clear, however, that a chronology which arbitrarily refers events to the years of the Christian era, must be open to suspicion. Two objections will strike the most careless. What proof have we that the

years of the Ceylonese authorities are of the same length as our own? And is there not reason to suspect that some of the one hundred and seventy monarchs reigned, not successively, but contemporaneously? This latter suspicion acquires some force from the well known fact, that the island was inhabited by three distinct people, who frequently raised a sovereign to the throne of the whole country. It seems, indeed, that each people had its king, two of whom paid vassalistic homage to the one that occupied the throne of Wijeya. On the whole, there seems to be ground for the inference, that monarchs and vassals are sometimes confounded.

And who was this Wijeya, the reputed founder of the Singhalese dynasty? His life deserves particular attention, from its resemblance to that of the Saxon founder of our Kentish dynasty in the fifth century of our era,—a resemblance which, though (so far as we can remember) hitherto unnoticed, is too striking to be hastily dismissed.

Between five and six hundred years before Christ, say the native chroniclers, there reigned in Wango (the modern Bengal) a prince named Singhabahu, because he descended from a lion (Singha). This prince had two sons, the elder of whom was Wijeya. The lawless character of this youth—his frequent robberies, his open depredations at the head of a band, equally ferocious with himself, made the suffering people clamour for his punishment. Unable to protect him any longer, and unwilling to put him to death, the king sent him away with seven hundred followers to seek his fortune in some other country. The exiled prince put to sea, and after an unsuccessful attempt to effect a landing on some part of the coast, passed over to Ceylon. His band being too weak to effect anything by open force, unless indeed in the predatory way, he betook himself to craft. Having fallen in love with a native princess, Kuwani, he obtained her hand, and through her an introduction to the kings of the island. How to remove them, with their leading warriors, and thereby to clear his own way to the sovereignty, was the one grand project of his ambition. The opportunity soon occurred. At a royal wedding, which was solemnized with more than ordinary pomp, the influence of his wife caused him and his followers to be numbered among the guests. In the midst of the festivity, when all the other guests were doubtless unarmed, and overcome with liquor, Wijeya and his companions drew their concealed weapons, and rid themselves of all who might oppose their schemes of aggrandizement. And these schemes were soon realized. One by one the remaining princes were compelled or persuaded to submit, until the whole island acknowledged the stranger.

To render the parallel between the adventures of the Ceylonese Wijeya and the Kentish Hengist more evident, it may be observed that, according to one ancient Frisian chronicle, the latter was also expelled for his irregularities, by his father, a prince of Frisia. In the British legend, indeed, Rowena is daughter of the invading, not of the native, prince; but, in other respects, the legends are so closely allied as to give rise to some reflections. When the literature of the East becomes as well known as it ought to be, many legends which are now supposed to be of Gothic or Celtic origin, will doubtless be traced to a more distant source. The British line of Hengist, like the metempsychosis, or transmigration of souls, (a fundamental tenet of the Gaulish and British religions) reached us from the East. This doctrine, we may observe, in passing, as professed by Pythagoras (and possibly by Plato) is somewhat puzzling to our author. Whence did Pythagoras derive it?—from Egypt, or, as others will have it, immediately from India, the fountain-

head? There is surely no need to travel so far for the solution of a problem which has no difficulty whatever in it. In the time of Pythagoras, the same doctrine was rife in Gaul, and probably in all the regions (some adjoining Greece) which the Celtic race (then the most widely spread in Europe) inhabited. No doubt he might hear of it in Egypt—though we have no proof that it was held by the priests of that country; and so he might at Crotona, where he passed the concluding years of his life—for, in his day, a portion of Italy was Celtic. But the greater probability is, that it was familiar to him from his childhood—the descendants of the Celts being no strangers in Greece itself; one dialect, at least, of which bears a strong affinity with the Celtic.

The very year in which Wijeya commenced his reign (b.c. 543) was, we are told by the native chroniclers, the last of the mortal existence of Gautama Buddha, the founder of the wide-spread religion which bears his name. But if such a character ever existed at all,—if he be not a being purely mythologic—he was probably much older. From different oriental authorities, he is made by Professor Wilson to have flourished at least a thousand years before our era.

The errors in regard to this personage, be he historical or mythologic, may be partly owing to the number who at different periods bore the same name. Of that number, Gautama was the twenty-fifth; and all had appeared at intervals distant from each other by thousands of years. All, too, had raised themselves to the divine nature by their own unaided virtue;—for in the Buddhist, as in another Indian system, deification is the necessary result of perfect human virtue. All were probably mythologic. The religion had of course an origin; but when, and where, and by whom, will for ever baffle human inquiry. Magadha, in the north of India (supposed to be the modern Bengal), is generally adopted as the place; but the indication is much too indefinite to be received. From the occasional affinity between the Pali (the sacred language of the Buddhists) and the Pahlivi, or even the Zend, and still more from some allusions in the Zendawasta itself, we have a suspicion that the cradle of the Indian religion must be sought in Bactria or Iran. This conjecture we submit for consideration to the very few oriental scholars who have a competent knowledge of the ancient Pali, and who have access to the sacred books of the Buddhists. They will not, of course, find in the latter any trace of the two antagonist principles, or of the adoration of fire as a symbol of deity; but in both codes they will find mention of tenets with which both religions were familiar, and which were probably derived from some source more ancient than either,—possibly some form of religion once prevailing in Iran. That country, according to an ancient biographer of Zerdusht, was famous for its deification of illustrious mortals; and so proud of its popular faith, as to hear with contempt the exhortations of the new apostle. But there is reason to infer that he derived some of his observances from that country. Not to take life from any animal; to be pure in manners; to delight in heavenly communion; to believe in the *dævas*, or genii; and to hold that the powers of darkness, which continually hover around us, can be scared away only by purity of life, were, with other points of resemblance, common to the two creeds of Zerdusht and Buddha, and they also appear to have been prevalent in Iran.

At whatever period Gautama Buddha lived, and whatever the region from which he derived his last mortal form of existence, the Singhalese have always stoutly maintained that he visited and laboured among them. He preached both

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to gods and devils. With the latter he must have had trouble enough, if on his first landing he found them so numerous as not to leave him room enough for the sole of his foot. At length they gave way so far as to allow him to set one foot on the ground. This was enough: like Zerdusht, his words of power put to flight every devil that had opposed him. In a second and a third visit he was equally successful; and the number of converts whom his miracles made, nearly equalled the number of inhabitants. How could anybody doubt of his bodily presence in Lanka (the original name for Ceylon), after seeing the impression of his foot on the rock at the summit of a mountain peak? To be sure the Malabars (who are of the Brahminical sect) insist that the trace was left by Siva; while the Mohammedans are equally positive that it was the work of Adam, whose terrestrial paradise was nowhere else than Ceylon. It might be well asked of all three, how Adam, or Siva, or Buddha came to have a foot so enormously large,—some five feet seven inches long, by two feet seven broad; and all would probably shrug their shoulders at the daring impiety of the sceptic,—not the less so when told that there was no foot-step at all—that the vestige was fanciful.

The tremendous nature, and all but eternal duration of the punishments denounced by Buddhism might naturally be supposed to exercise a beneficial effect on morals. On the bulk of the population, it may have had that effect; but on kings and priests it has been less influential. As to the former, at least, no country has ever been cursed with more abominable despots; and of the latter we meet with occasional glimpses little creditable to their sanctity. Probably, neither class had much faith in the popular belief: it was a good thing for the multitude, and therefore it must be encouraged. Ceylonese history furnishes us with a new chapter of regal tragedies; scarcely half of the one hundred and seventy reached a peaceful end. Assassination, open rebellion, secret conspiracy, rioted in Buddha's fair domain. But he is not responsible for such crimes. His moral precepts, to which (if he ever lived) his own conduct was strictly conformable, were always pure, often elevated. "Overcome evil with good," is one of them, and surely a nobler never issued from the lips or pen of man. Again: "He is a more noble warrior who conquers himself, than he who on the field of battle vanquishes thousands of enemies." In other precepts he inculcates, not merely the subjugation of the evil propensities of our nature, but their entire destruction: the soul must not only be inaccessible to sin, but purified from the very desire of it. The old prophet, therefore, is in no degree responsible for the crimes of his followers. Of all uninspired moralists he is, probably, the purest; or, at least, the only one fit to be ranked with Zerdusht. The mischief is, that in both religions the spirit has long fled, while the skeleton remains with an exterior fair enough to supply, in vulgar estimation, its place.

In the volume before us, we have little insight into the temporal condition of society. At some periods we see evident signs of prosperity. Architecture and sculpture were greatly improved: witness the remains which now exist, and which are vestiges of a far higher civilization than has been found in India since its settlement by the Europeans. According to one native account, Anuradhapura, the capital, must, in the reign of Mihindo IV. (A.D. 1023-1059), have been equal in extent and magnificence to any city in Asia:

"Perhaps we cannot interest the reader better than by extracting here the account which a native has left us of this ancient and far-famed city. 'This magnificent city, (says the describer), is refulgent from the numerous temples and palaces, whose golden pinnacles glitter in the sky. The sides of its streets

are strewn with black sand, whilst the middle is sprinkled with white; they are spanned by arches of bending wood, bearing flags of gold and silver; whilst vessels of the same metals, containing flowers, are observed on either side. In niches placed for the purpose are statues holding lamps. * * * Elephants, horses, carts and multitudes of people are ever to be seen passing and repassing. There are dancers, jugglers and musicians of all kinds and of all nations; the latter performing on chantage shells, ornamented with gold. The city is four gows (sixteen miles) in length from north to south, and the same in breadth from east to west. The principal streets are Moon-street, Great King-street, Bullock-street, and River-street, all of them of immense extent, and some containing 11,000 houses; to enumerate the smaller ones would be impossible."

That agriculture was also much encouraged, is clear from the remains of tanks, and other means of irrigation. Indeed, the soil is said to have produced far above what was necessary for the consumption of the inhabitants, and that great quantities of produce (rice and cinnamon, especially) were exported to the Indian continent. But what was the state of morals and law? Female chastity was evidently not much valued in practice, whatever it might be in theory. There was no limit to the number of wives or of concubines other than the means of the man. The husband could at any time obtain a divorce from any one of his wives,—the law only looking to the security of the wife's property. Minor offences were provided for by the *lex talionis*,—"An eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth." Usury was in full operation. Fifty per cent. was charged for the first year; and, if payment were not made, a hundred for the second. To be sure, it could never exceed cent. per cent. however long the period. As may be readily supposed, creditors had sometimes trouble enough to recover what was due. We may notice one *unique expedient*, on the authority of Knox:—

"They have an odd usage among them to recover their debts, which is this: they will sometimes go to the house of their debtor, with the leaves of *neeingala*, a certain plant which is rank poison, and threaten him that they will eat that poison and destroy themselves, unless he will pay him what he owes. The debtor is much afraid of this, and, rather than the other should poison himself, will sometimes sell a child to pay the debt; not that the one is tender of the life of the other, but out of care of himself: for if the person dies of the poison, the other, for whose sake the man poisoned himself, must pay a ransom for his life. By this means, also, they will sometimes threaten to revenge themselves of those with whom they have any contest, and do it too. And, upon the same intent, they will also jump down some steep place, or hang, or make away with themselves, that so they might bring their adversary to great damage."

Long before the arrival of the Portuguese, the country had greatly declined from its ancient prosperity. How could it be otherwise, when tribes of different origin were perpetually disputing the throne, and even the possession of the country? The Malabars, the Buddhas, the Bengalees, the Mohammedans, were no less eager than the aboriginal Singhalese to retain permanently this "garden of the world." Their contests depopulated, demoralized, and consequently weakened it. Still, the Portuguese (who arrived, under Almeida, in 1505), during a century and a half, could not subdue one quarter of the island: if they held some of the fortified places, they had no influence over the interior. Nor did they deserve success. Their rapacity, their eagerness to amass the greatest amount of wealth in the shortest given time, were fatal to their design of obtaining permanent possession of the island. Driven out by the intrigues and the arms of the Dutch, in union with the natives (1658), they still left many Portuguese settlers, whose descendants at this day are numerous enough to require seventy priests as missionaries. The Dutch were equally rapacious, and their

dominion no less partial and transitory. From 1766 to 1796, they had to encounter the intrigues and power of the English, who, in the latter year, annihilated their domination in whatever part it existed. The native monarchs, indeed, still remained, and to them the whole of the interior was still subject; but they had lost their ancient valour, and consequently their power of resistance. In 1815 Wickrama Singha was dethroned and carried away to the continent, where he survived his disgrace nearly twenty years. From that time the island has been ours; and of late years, an impulse has been given to its prosperity, unexampled in the time of its most glorious monarchs. The population, indeed, may not be one-fourth of its ancient amount, but it is double what it was in 1815, and is proceeding at a still more rapid ratio. Forests are disappearing; roads are opened from one extremity to the other; bridges are thrown over some of the rivers, and regular ferries provided for others; while agricultural produce and commercial enterprise are more than quadrupled since the termination of the war. As a necessary consequence, the prosperity of the people is greatly increased; and they are attached to our sway. Within the last fifteen years the progress of improvement is more decided; and we hope it will not be impeded by injudicious measures at home.

An Exposition of Vulgar and Common Errors, adapted to the Year of Grace MDCCCXLV.
By Thomas Brown Redivivus. PICKERING.

THIS is the eighth publication of the series called "Small Books on Great Subjects;" and an extraordinary publication it is. The attempt to imitate not merely the style, but the peculiar manner, of the well-known knight and physician (well known, we mean, as to *name*, but certainly not as to his writings, which almost everybody has seen, but which scarcely anybody has read,) is, to say the least of it, a bold one; and we are not sure that it would be justified even by success. Every century has its peculiarities alike of manner and expression; and though to ordinary readers they may not appear very observable in two consecutive centuries, when, as in the present instance, there is a chasm of a century intervening, they are evident to the most careless. Such peculiarities, too, attach to every writer even of the same age; and they necessarily become more prominent as they are separated by time from those of any other writer. The union of both characteristics gives to many authors an individuality so decided and so marked as to make imitation hopeless; and such assuredly is Sir Thomas Brown. You may, to a certain extent, imitate the phraseology of the period, and even of the man; but his quaint simplicity, his quiet faculty of observation, his humour at times, combined with an extreme timidity which makes him fearful lest he should have said too much, when any one of his readers sees that he would like to say a great deal more,—these qualities, joined with a frequent perception of the ridiculous, and an earnest conviction of the truths which it behoves every man to feel as well as to learn, have stamped the Norwich doctor with a distinction wholly *sui generis*. At the present day there are many writers of greater learning, some of greater acuteness, a few of more varied powers of observation; but in his peculiarities, such as we have inadequately alluded to, he does stand, and for ever will stand, alone.

In proof of this last assertion, let any reader compare a few pages of the present volume with its renowned predecessor, and he will understand our meaning a hundred times better than he could from the most laboured description. In some places (especially in the earlier pages,) there will be found a near approach to the

phraseology, and more than once something like an approach to the spirit; but the general manner will be felt to be as distinct as it well can be.

But, it may be asked, if successful imitation were possible, why is it attempted? *Cui bono?* We can hardly answer this question. Probably the author is dissatisfied with the changes which in two centuries have been introduced into our written language. And so are we. Change is not always improvement. There can be no doubt that our mother tongue has lost in many respects besides simplicity. It was the comparative disuse of particles which has gone far to destroy the natural connexion between not only different sentences of the same paragraph, but different members of the same sentence. Our modern speech has little sequence, because it has no reasoning. Compared with the language of the great writers of the seventeenth century, it too often seems as if it had no meaning. This, doubtless is the reason why our particles have fallen into disuse: modern compositions, being nearly destitute of thought, and especially of thought connected, have found them to be an incumbrance, and away they have been flung.

But if we cannot congratulate the author before us on the success of his imitation, we can at least say that he has produced a book, small though it be, of some value. He is often a just thinker; and his good feeling for the most part calls for our warm praise. His manner, too, is not without attraction; and more than once he raises within us a sigh at the comparison between our literature now, and our literature of the Elizabethan and Stuart age. He has faults, certainly. Of these, the greatest is his studied brevity, for which, indeed, we are as much at a loss to account, as for the presumption that led him into such a field. He has also some errors of reasoning,—a few perhaps in the premises from which he draws his deductions; but with every abatement for these and other defects, his book is worth more than one perusal.

In illustration of our remarks, we give one of the earlier essays in the collection:—

“*A good fellow, nobody's enemy but his own.*”
“It hath oft times been matter of wonderment to me how many phrases do come to be received as current coin in the world, which for certain were never lawfully stamped in the mint of either religion or reason: and among these brass shillings of society, I know none that better deserveth to be nailed to the counter than the one above placed; for many an idle young man hath, before now, found it the last in his pocket, and haply hath exchanged it for a pistol bullet, thinking himself a gainer by the bargain. If man grew to a rock like a limpet, then might he haply be his own enemy without any great harm to his neighbours; but he who liveth in society, and faileth to perform his part aright in the station assigned to him, doth all that in him lieth to destroy the body politic. He who is delivered over to vice and drunkenness—for such being interpreted is the meaning of a good fellow who is only *his own enemy*,—setteth a bad example to his dependents; squandereth his fortune on unworthy objects, to the neglect of all that he might and ought to have done towards the relief and advance of the deserving; plungeth his family into difficulties; grieveth, shameth, and perhaps starveth them; ruineth his health, so as to make himself a burthen to those about him; and finally, after having been a bad citizen, a bad master, a bad husband, a bad father, sinketh into the grave with a soul so irrecoverably poisoned by habits of sensuality and gross earthliness, that it would seem rather fit to rot with its putrefying companion, than to enter into any region of spiritualized existence. And this man who hath fulfilled no one duty, but on the contrary hath spread around him a dank atmosphere of sin, is called ‘a good fellow,’ merely because he hath done all this with an air of reckless gaiety, which showed an utter absence of any feeling for the beings he was rendering miserable! Verily the world's measure is woefully short of the standard cubit and ephah of the sanctuary.”

The merit of another exposure of a so-called

vulgar error we cannot so readily perceive,—viz. “*He that spareth the rod spoileth the child.*” If it be a vulgar error, it has at least had the sanction of many ages. Of course it is not to be read literally—and, like many other general propositions, it may not be equally just in all its particulars. There are doubtless minds in which affection has more influence than fear, encouragement than severity; but everybody of the least practical experience in the instruction of boys, must have found that neither the rule of kindness nor that of severity should be one and universal. The parent is the first schoolmaster; his authority is to the last similar to that of the pedagogue; morals and conduct are his peculiar province; and the mode in which they are inculcated differs not from that pursued in reference to other acquisitions. The mischief is, that few schoolmasters, and perhaps fewer parents, have learned to draw the proper distinction between idleness and slowness of apprehension; and thus minds either have, on the one hand, been made irrecoverably stupid, or been suffered, on the other, to become hopelessly torpid.

“*A little learning is a dangerous thing.*” is another of the butts at which our author discharges his shafts; but neither his authority, nor that of the Bishop of Norwich, will be acknowledged to outweigh that of Bacon, (from whom the poet derived the truth) or that of Aristotle, whom Bacon followed, or that of universal experience, which is higher than all. But we return to the essay, not so much to refute the position in question, as to condemn the old sneer at Pope's “small knowledge of Greek.” The author may possibly remember that a similar sneer has been often indulged at the expense of a writer scarcely less celebrated—Dr. Johnson,—for no other reason that we can imagine, save his own modest confession—that he was not “a good Greek scholar.” But the said author evidently does not remember an anecdote on this subject relative to the late Mr. Gifford and (we think) Mr. Gilbert Wakefield. The former, then a young man, was disputing some opinion of Johnson (whether relative or not to Pope's Greek learning we do not recollect) on the ground of Johnson's own acknowledgment; and when mildly contradicted, he still persevered: “Consider, Sir, that Johnson himself admitted his own inferiority,—that he allows he is not a good Greek scholar!” “Ah, my dear Sir,” replied his antagonist, “it is difficult to say whom such a man as Johnson would consent to call a good Greek scholar!” “I hope,” observes Mr. Gifford, “that this reproof has been a lesson to me!” Other men seem to merit it no less than the first editor of the *Quarterly*.

Whether our author is strictly orthodox in some of his notions “respecting the nature of evil spirits,” we shall leave theologians to determine. In his remarks on “Genius,” the existence of which he all but denies,—esteeming it to consist in industry alone,—we are sure that few will agree with him. But whatever drawbacks may exist as to these and other matters, there can be no doubt of one thing,—that there is both wisdom and eloquence in several of these essays; and no thinking mind can peruse them without interest, despite of the affected quaintness which so often disfigures them.

Survey of the Oregon Territory, of the Californias, and of the Gulf of California, conducted in the Years 1840, 1841, and 1842—[Explanation du Territoire de l'Oregon.] By M. Duflot de Mofras, Attaché to the French Legation at Mexico. Published by Order of the King. [Second Notice.]

Of the two Californias, the Upper, or the New (so called because the first attempt to colonize it was made so late as 1769) is by far the most ex-

tensive, the most rich, and the most important. Why it should thus have been so long neglected by the Spanish government, might well surprise us, if we did not bear in mind that its colonial possessions were already too vast to be efficiently superintended, and that the foundation of new settlements, with the construction of practicable roads, involves expense which a people constantly occupied in European wars cannot always defray. But the advantages offered by the soil, climate and natural harbours of the coast, were so striking that, at length, an effort at colonization was made by order of Charles III. As usual in such projects when undertaken by Spain, the task devolved on ecclesiastics, who were always the pioneers of colonization in the New World. Sixteen Franciscan monks, under their apostolic prefect, Fray Junipero Serra, were directed to found a new establishment, either at Monterey or at San Diego, both ports on the Pacific. Hitherto the Jesuits had conducted such enterprises, and endeavoured, in some degree, both to Christianize and to civilize the native Indian tribes among whom they were sent; but, on the abolition of the order, the duty fell to other communities. The whole of Upper California was abandoned to the Franciscans; while the Dominicans were intrusted with the lower province. Both at Monterey and San Diego missions were immediately founded,—the government of Mexico lending its effectual aid to the friars by supplies of soldiers, workmen, cattle and every other necessary. Between June 1769 and October 1776, no fewer than nineteen missions were founded—all, in fact, that have ever been founded except two, viz. one in 1817, the other in 1823. They were the germs of Spanish colonization; and without some knowledge of their construction and administration, we can have no correct idea of the state of society in those regions.

The buildings of a mission were arranged in the form of a square or rectangle,—being generally from 160 to 170 yards English in circuit. In the inclosure, formed by the four sides, was always a court-yard, ornamented with fountains and planted with trees. A gallery ran along them, with doors leading to the sleeping apartments for the monks, stewards, travellers, and workmen, and to the schools, storehouses, &c. The ground-floors were for the church (which always occupied one of the sides), the domestic offices, refectory, parlours, and the abode of the female domestics, and especially of the young Indian girls, who are taught the arts of spinning and weaving both in hemp and cotton. If any of them exhibited greater intelligence than usual, they were also taught singing and music. They were constantly under the care of aged Indian women, and were not permitted to leave the monastery, as it was called, before husbands were provided for them. The Indian boys were kept to the schools, and when somewhat grown were sent to the workshops outside the inclosure, or to agricultural labours. The number of friars at each mission was generally two only—one for the internal government of the house and the exercises of religion, the other for the superintendence of the outdoor labours. The number of white servants either within or without the precincts of the house was always small. At a convenient distance from this quadrangular establishment were the cottages of the Indian converts, and of the few whites with whom it was impossible to dispense, with the various forges and workshops necessary for the handicrafts which they exercised. The domains belonging to these establishments were always vast—often from thirty to forty square leagues, and divided into fifteen or twenty separate farms or estates, each with its necessary habitations and out-

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buildings, and to every three or four of which was a chapel. The communication between these estates and the parent establishment, and the control over both, were effected by four soldiers and a sergeant, who were subject to the two monks, and whose barracks were directly opposite to the front entrance. They served, too, in some degree, for the defence of the community against such hostile Indians as obstinately refused the benefits of civilization and peace. How the monks contrived to teach the rude natives so many trades, some requiring both ingenuity and diligence, and (what is of still more value,) to give them habits of industry and contentment with their lot, is marvellous, especially when contrasted with the failure, more or less partial, of other missionaries. Houses of brick and stone, corn-mills, roads, bridges, and mechanical instruments of all kinds, attested their progress in the useful arts of life. They were always well dressed considering the climate. The commonest among them had linen shirts, trowsers, and a kind of woollen tunic. The overlookers, and those who excelled in handicraft and mechanics, were habited in European cloth like the Spaniards. Of food, even of the best kind, they had abundance. In beef, mutton, and bread made of Indian corn and wheat ground with the husk, they were not stinted; of peas, beans, and some other necessities, they had each a certain portion every week. But less attention was paid to their minds than to their bodies. They were imperfectly taught Spanish; few of them could read; none could write, except some designed for superior and responsible offices; so that the schools seem, in reality, to have been intended chiefly as places for teaching the mere elements of religion. That the knowledge never ascended to anything higher than the elements, and sometimes not even those, is evident from the uniform ignorance of the people. They were taught less of the spirit than of the form, to which indeed they were much addicted. At sun-rise the bell of each community tolled the *Angelus*, and every one hastened to the church. Then came the mass; after it breakfast; then labour. The Indians were divided into companies, each under a superintendent, and they laboured either together or contiguously. At eleven they dined, and rested two hours. Then followed labour until the evening *Angelus*, which rung an hour before sunset. After prayers came supper; and next such diversions as best pleased them, among which dancing and singing were the chief. On the whole, it may be truly said, that their lives were happy, and they felt their obligations to the men who had made them so.

The immense herds and flocks belonging to the establishments rendered it necessary for the friars to dispose of their superfluities. Skins and tallow formed no inconsiderable portion of their trade. But they, also, sold wine, oil, and corn, to the ships which touched at the ports. Sometimes they received money in return, sometimes other commodities, especially foreign manufactures. Hence their temporal prosperity was manifest, and as solid as it was brilliant. Where the missions also possessed valuable mines, and had dependents capable of managing them, they became rich; but it was not their object to accumulate the precious metals (except in their churches) so much as to enlarge and improve their *haciendas*, or domains. Sometimes they were still further enriched by testamentary bequests. Thus, in process of time, some of these communities had domains four or five hundred square leagues in extent. The surplus of their funds generally went to pay the friars and other ecclesiastics who served the rural cures, to the Dominicans were allowed six hundred, to

the Franciscans four hundred piastres, or dollars, per annum. But the wants of the native Indians, whether attached to the community or not, were always relieved; and this was considered the greatest of all obligations, after the payment of the clergy. The friars themselves could have no private interest in the produce of their manufactures and of their vast estates; this was prohibited by the vows of their order. They could hold property only in common; and care was taken by their bishops and prefects that none of them should take from the common stock more than what was absolutely necessary for their comfortable support.

The European colonists seldom placed themselves under the authority of these communities, which, indeed, were exclusively designed for the benefit of the Indians. The Spaniards were not fond of colonizing at all: they preferred civil employment in large towns, or military rank in the *presidios* (what these were we shall soon perceive). But those who did apply themselves to rural economy, and the arts connected with it, and still more their offspring by native women, or women of mixed race, were located in *pueblos*, which are more deserving of our notice than even the missions. Whatever we may have been wont to say of the Spaniards, it is clear that they understood the art of colonization far better than ourselves; and some of our emigration advocates would do well to look into the *leyes de Indias*, and the *ordenanzas reales*, or royal ordinances, which were, from time to time, promulgated by the court of Madrid. And it is worthy of remark, that no monarch of Spain ever exerted himself so ably and so humanely for the interests of the Indians as Philip II.: he was uniformly their great and best friend. The local governor had the choice of the land where a pueblo was to be founded; and he was directed to choose one well wooded, well watered, and of easy access. To each colonist was awarded four portions of land, each equivalent to about eight English acres, besides a small patch for the site of a house and garden, which he was bound to construct in a line with other houses. These portions could neither be sold nor alienated in any way, and were transmissible for ever in the hereditary line of succession. On each two acres ten fruit trees were to be planted. Besides this land appropriated to each settler, which was intended for tillage, there was a large piece devoted to the rearing of trees for firewood; and there was also a common pasture where all the flocks and herds of the pueblo were scattered; and both were sacred. In the vicinity of each pueblo was a royal domain, which might either be cultivated for the augmentation of the royal revenues, or granted to future settlers—generally to the Church. This allotment of lands was the first thing done towards the foundation of a rural colony; but where the intended settlers were poor, which was almost invariably the case, this advantage was nothing unaccompanied by other helps. To the honour of the Spanish kings be it said, that each colonist was supported from the royal treasury during the first five years. For two years he received 120 piastres a year; for the three following years, 60,—making, in the whole, 420 piastres for each poblador. During the five years, too, he was exempt from tithe and contributions of every kind. Nor was this all. In addition to the money, he had a weekly allowance of fresh meat and flour during the whole five years. And we must not forget that on his arrival on the spot destined for his future abode, each poblador was presented with a pair of oxen for the plough, two mares, two saddle horses, two cows with their calves, two ewes, two she-goats, a sumpter mule, pigs, poultry, a musket, buckler, lance, ploughs, harrows, spades, hatchets, and other instruments

necessary for the farmer and the carpenter. The use of weapons was obviously defensive, against the frequent assaults of the Indians. The allowance of corn and meat was designed to prevent the necessity of killing the grazing stock: every poblador was forbidden to do so until he could number 15 cows, 1 bull, 15 mares and 1 stallion, 12 ewes and 1 ram, 10 she and 1 he goat.

And now, it may be asked, Did the royal treasury lose the money so advanced? Not a farthing. At the end of the five years, the obligation of repayment commenced—of course, chiefly in produce. This produce went to the support of the *presidios* and the augmentation of the royal treasury. Nothing, therefore, was lost by this policy; but much was gained. Every head of a family being compelled to furnish two horsemen, completely armed, at the first summons, a warlike spirit was infused into each community. In addition, four soldiers and one sergeant were located in each pueblo, both to teach the male colonists the use of arms, and to maintain internal order when required to do so by the local alcaldes. For the first two years, these alcaldes, or magistrates, were nominated by the governor of the province: afterwards they were elected by the people from among themselves, subject, however, to confirmation by the governor. So, also, during the five years no proper church, or resident clergyman, was provided—the ordinary duties being performed gratuitously on Sunday, by a friar from the nearest mission—apparently in some temporary building. If, however, the people wished for an immediate religious administration, government was ready to contribute a thousand piastres towards the building of a church.

It is not to be supposed that an infant pueblo, assisted as it was by five soldiers, could alone be able to resist the hostile attacks of the Indians: still less could the missions. Hence the foundation of *presidios*, or military fortresses, from which troops could be marched at any moment on a given point menaced by the enemy. Each was surrounded by a ditch, about 20 feet wide by 10 in depth: along the inner side was a strong brick or stone wall, about 24 feet high by 5 in thickness. It was square or rectangular, the angles being flanked by little bastions. In the centre of all was the church; round it were the barracks, store-houses, houses of the colonists, wells, cisterns, stables, gardens, &c. Eight pieces of ordnance defended each presidio, which were enough against Indian attacks, however feebly they might have resisted more civilized enemies. But there were not presidios in sufficient number for so extensive a province as Upper California. There were only four; so that if troops were required at a distant part, the active Indians had time to escape with their prey long before the horsemen could be put in motion. When the *pueblos*, however, grew populous and warlike, they were generally sufficient for their own defence. The *presidios*, we may add, are now in ruins.

The prosperity of the *pueblos* was great; but we have not the means of ascertaining it so satisfactorily as that of the missions, the returns of which are extant. But, alas! this prosperity exists no longer. By degrees, ever since 1824, and especially since 1834, the friars have been deprived of their property. The missions had a common fund in Mexico, intended for the uses of religion; and, by the sale of a domain, it was augmented in 1827 to nearly eighty thousand piastres or dollars: in that year the republican government seized it, on the pretext that it was necessary for the wants of the state. The example (if, indeed, it were the first of the kind) was too attractive not to be followed; and wherever the friars had money, it was unceremoniously

seized. When no more was to be got from this source, the domains of the missions were farmed out to the capitalists who chose to take them, and the mission-houses were consequently shorn of their numbers and wealth,—enough being barely left to support one or two clergymen. By these acts of spoliation, the government, or we should rather say, a few of the ministers and their minions, obtained above a million of piastres. In 1832 a decree passed the Congress that all the monastic domains throughout the republic should be farmed out, for seven years, and the proceeds paid into the republican treasury. To silence for a time the outcry against this wholesale plunder, and to prove that the blow was aimed at the friars only, not at the Church, a decree of 1836 placed the administration of the Californian domains at the disposal of the new bishop of California,—a prelate devoted to the government. But this concession (which was one in appearance only) was revoked by Santa Anna in 1842,—the administration being vested in the military chief of the provinces. In many cases the above decrees were but partially executed in California; but where they failed to command obedience, it was more than enforced, (as we shall soon perceive) by the provincial junta and the local governor. Indeed, the greater portion of the spoil fell to the white and Mexican settlers, who farmed the domains on their own terms, and paid over what they pleased to the republican treasury at Mexico.

For the last four years, the friars have had no share of the proceeds; but, in lieu of them, a nominal salary of 400 dollars, which is not paid in money but in merchandise, estimated at much beyond its value, and even this is often, indeed generally, withheld. Many of the friars abandoned their cures, and their place was supplied by members of the secular order; men, it is said, who in attainments and in conduct were far below their predecessors, and whose lives were anything but creditable to their profession.

The transfer of these missionary domains from ecclesiastical to civil management, has been followed by a decline in their population and prosperity almost unexampled. The following statements, taken from the returns of 1834 and of 1842, before and after the transfer in question, will be read with painful interest:—

1. In 1834 the Indian population of the 21 missions amounted to 30,650: in 1842, to 4,450.
2. In the former year the number of horned cattle was 424,000: in the latter, 28,220.
3. At the same period the number of sheep, goats and pigs was 321,500: at the latter, 31,600.
4. In 1834, the number of horses, mares, mules, asses, &c., was 62,500: in 1842, it was 3,800.

5. The produce in corn, &c. has decreased in a much greater proportion,—that of 70 to 4.

On such facts it is useless to comment. They illustrate the blind cupidity with which the government and the new powers have hastened to dispose of the stock they found on the domains, without attempting to supply their place by breeding. As an inevitable consequence, the Indians fled into the woods to their old barbarous habits, and the land remains uncultivated. And thus it is that a region more extensive than Great Britain and Ireland together, had only 5,000 white inhabitants in 1842; and, perhaps, six times that number of roving Indians.* But in justice to the government (if the term be applicable where nobody obeys the laws unless he please) we must not omit one effort—intended to be a magnificent one—to colonize the waste

or abandoned plains. In 1834 there was formed under the sanction of the president, a company which assumed the pompous title of Cosmopolite, and its avowed object was to colonize Upper California. By the sale of church lands, money enough was raised to dispatch a vessel with about 200 settlers. But there was not one agriculturist among them; while, on the other hand, there was an abundance of musicians, dancers, goldsmiths, printers and adventurers of all kinds. They were sent fifteen leagues into the interior, but being neither able nor willing to labour, they were soon plunged in misery, and as many as could begged their way back to Mexico.

But if the Mexicans themselves know not how to colonize, others did, and even before the secularization of the monastic domains, they hastened to participate in the common wealth of the country. They were chiefly subjects of the United States, and partly of England, who crossing the Rocky Mountains with little property beyond their rifles, established themselves in places where union would give them the greatest political preponderance. The result will soon be what it has already been in Texas,—“the annexation” of California to the most ambitious of republics. In both cases the measures adopted are the same, and they are silently leading to the same end.

In 1822, when the revolution broke out at the city of Mexico, California was declared a territory; it was allowed a local administration; and it sent a deputy to the general Congress. The first governor and political chief entered on his functions in 1824, and distinguished himself by his rapacity towards the missions. In 1830, he was recalled, and his place supplied by Don Manuel Victoria, who was more favourable to the monks. In this view he was highly unpopular with the white inhabitants, who, though at that time scarcely exceeding 3,000 in number; looked upon the church-lands as their lawful prey. One day those residing at San Diego and the Pueblo los Angeles arose, and expelled him. Figueroa, the next governor, was more to their mind; in 1834 he carried into effect the decree of the provincial junta, which took from the friars the administration of their own property. They were promised, indeed, a yearly salary, varying from a thousand to fifteen hundred dollars, but not a penny did they get. Thus, while the general government at Mexico was exacting all the money and property it could from the unfortunate missions in every part of the country, the local junta was no less eager to profit by the occasion; and being nearer to the prey, obtained the lion's share. Indeed, the native Californians, (descended from the Spaniards,) with Mexican, American, and English colonists, farmed the haciendas on their own terms, and paid little to the general government. But that little they thought too much, and, to escape its payment, determined to separate themselves from the republic. In 1835 they opened a communication with the United States, and received encouragement enough to act with more decision. In October 1836 Don Juan Baptista Alvarado, employed in the customs, collected about thirty American trappers and sixty rancheros or farmers of the new haciendas, and entering Monterey in the night of November the 2nd, seized one of the batteries. Gutierrez (who had succeeded Figueroa) was in the presidio with about 70 men. Alvarado, being unprovided with ammunition, could have effected nothing, unless he had been supplied with that indispensable article by three merchant vessels and one brig of the United States, which happened (of course, accidentally) to be in the harbour; and also with money by two American merchants, with which he was enabled to corrupt the soldiers of Gutierrez. Thus abandoned, the governor had no alterna-

tive but to capitulate; and both he and the few who remained attached to his cause were put on board a vessel, and landed in Lower California. The Californians were now urged to declare themselves independent of Mexico, and to place themselves under the protection of the United States; and the latter measure would have been adopted but for the opposition of some Mexican, Spanish and English residents at Monterey, who dissuaded the leading members of the junta from concurring in it. The province, however, was declared a free and sovereign state, and Alvarado proclaimed governor, while the command of the troops was given to Vallejo, previously a simple lieutenant, and now commander-in-chief. But to save appearances the new state engaged to become re-united with Mexico, in case that republic should change its own constitution, and become a federal one like that of the United States.

It might be supposed that the central government would take some step to vindicate the integrity of the republic, and to punish the men who had tried to deliver the province to a foreign power. No such thing: Alvarado being promised a conditional recognition of the presidential authority was publicly recognized in his capacity of governor, while Vallejo was also declared commandant of the forces. Thus both gained their object, and were no longer clamorous for “annexation,” which might indeed deprive them of their authority. Alvarado did not forget to reward Graham and the thirty riflemen to whom he owed his elevation. Money, horses, horned cattle, and farms, the spoils of the church, were showered upon them. In like manner, other dependents and allies were satisfied; while the political and military chiefs enriched themselves by a systematic and unblushing plunder of what yet remained to the friars. But the tranquillity was of short duration. Disappointed in their project of a union between California and the States, Graham and his party determined to overturn the governor whom they had made, and, by proclaiming the independence of the former, to prepare the way for annexation. In April 1840, twenty-five Englishmen (deserters, as our author informs us, from English ships) and twenty-one Americans (mostly trappers) assembled in the woods near Monterey; but being betrayed by one of the number, they were seized, embarked, and sent to San Blas, whence they were marched to Tepic. Whatever the presumption against them, there was no proof beyond the testimony of a suspected accomplice; and their defence was accordingly undertaken by the British and American Consuls. The result was, that Bustamante, the president, was compelled, not only to liberate them, but to promise a large indemnity to each of them, and a great portion of it was paid them.—How far some of these details may be worthy of trust, we shall not, in the absence of authentic documents, attempt to decide. It is clear that they were arrested on evidence merely presumptive,—perhaps of a questionable, certainly of an illegal, character; and that they were treated with great rigour, to which some fell victims. But it is equally clear that they had, on the former occasion, committed overt acts against the authority of the central government, if they were not preparing to commit more. But, on the other hand, it must be observed that, for the former act, the leader himself had been rewarded instead of punished; and it could not therefore be made a ground of accusation against them. In respect to the alleged conspiracy, we may also remark, that presumption is not proof; and that where the ordinary forms of justice are disregarded, there is room enough for complaint. Our Consul, therefore, did right to interfere; but whether he was justified in supporting the

* Our author was one evening much surprised to hear amidst the solitude of its forests, the tune of *Robin Adair*, performed on a bugle. It came from an Englishman named Reed, who sat on horseback on the top of a hill, and who was accustomed to collect his flocks and herds by the music.

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demand of so large an indemnity is another question. One of our own countrymen, who is said two years before to have entered California in rags, claimed 15,000! He got 1,170 dollars.

Alvarado, therefore, retained his authority; but he was subject to much anxiety from the unmanageable republicans who remained. In 1841, their number being augmented by a hundred new comers, he applied for a reinforcement of Santa Anna. Where could it be then raised? The capital had not soldiers sufficient for its own defence. As had been often done, about three hundred criminals were taken from the public prisons, and promised not only pardon but lands, oxen, agricultural instruments, and rations, if they would behave well, and stand by the local government of California. With this force, and about half as many more of mere adventurers, General Micheltorena (*qu. Miguel Toranzo*?) sailed from Mazatlan late in July, and disembarked at San Diego in August, 1842. He dispersed Alvarado in the government; but to pacify that functionary, he was nominated first counsellor of the Departmental junta, with a large salary. On reaching Pueblo de los Angeles, the new governor learned that an American squadron had forcibly seized Monterey. As it had not been expected that Mexico could send so large a force as 450 men, in addition to the troops, (perhaps 100 men) which had remained in the province, a little negotiation led to the surrender of the place,—the American commodore attempting to justify the act by saying, that he had done so, believing that war had broken out between the two republics! In other respects, Micheltorena had no reason to congratulate himself on his appointment. The native Californians and the foreigners were equally unfriendly to his army,—asserting that virtually they no longer formed a part of the Mexican republic, and that they had a right to govern themselves.

Since the period in question, considerable additions have been annually made to the population from the United States. Some of them enter by the Rocky Mountains; but the far greater number by the caravan which leaves Santa Fé, in New Mexico (lat. 36° 12' N.) early in October, or late in September, and, proceeding to the west as far as the Sierra Madre, turns southwards below the Rio Navajos; passes through the territory of the former missions established for the conversion of the Moquis, Apaches and Gumanas; traverses the Rio Colorado about the 34th degree; crosses the Sierra Nevada, the valley of Los Tulares, and the Californian mountains; and in nine or ten weeks after leaving Santa Fé, reaches the Pueblo de los Angeles. Towards the close of 1841, sixty republicans arrived to swell the number which had arrived the year before, and with them 200 inhabitants of New Mexico. Soon afterwards (*viz.* before the end of January 1842) 40 Americans arrived by a different route, and were speedily followed by 80 more. We may add (what M. Duflet de Mofras could not know after his return to France), that during the rest of 1842, in 1843, the last and present year, the number has been augmented by many hundreds; so that the foreigners now nearly equal the native Californians, or Spanish descendants.

It is useless to pursue these statistic details further, or to dwell more at length on the recent attempts to revolutionize the province. Mexican domination has fallen for ever. If the president, with all the resources (such as they are) of the republic in his hands, was unable to punish the rebel Alvarado, at the head of 100 men, how can he be expected to repel the Americans, who now muster at least 1,500, and

whose skill with the rifle is scarcely inferior to that of the Blackfeet Indian?

Since the present article was commenced, war has been threatened by Mexico. There is something so ridiculous, yet at the same time so characteristic in this act of rhodomontade, that it must amuse all who have any knowledge of the two republics. Without a single vessel of war (she has only two or three rotten gun-boats), one brig and one steamer, without troops or artillery, or muskets, or resources of any kind, with a population impoverished, ignorant, and discontented, what can Mexico do against so active and so enterprising an enemy? Nothing but sit still, and see herself dismembered. Poor as are the military resources of the United States, three of its regiments would conquer Mexico in a month. Beyond all comparison it is the weakest state on the face of the earth. This the Americans have long known, and have acted accordingly. One of their first steps will be to send a squadron against Monterey, which will make no resistance, neither will San Diego, while Los Angeles with Santa Clara will openly espouse the cause of the invader. European interference may save the city of Mexico itself from subjugation, but will certainly not avert the dismemberment of the republic. Very soon, California, like Texas, will be dependent on the United States. It may not be immediately "annexed," but it will be declared "free and independent;" and thus it will be enabled to treat with the cabinet of Washington, until the opportunity comes (which in no case is far distant) when the mask may be thrown off, and the annexation effected. The Americans themselves make no secret of their intentions in this respect. If inferior to the old governments of Europe in diplomatic experience, they are immeasurably superior in penetration, in enterprise, in activity, and in everything connected with their own interests. California, in spite of all opposition in Mexico, or in Europe, will be a member of the Union.

It was our intention to enter into the state of society in the provinces south of Old California, but the interest inseparable from the existing relations between the two republics has induced us, contrary to our original intention, to confine ourselves within much narrower limits. When we receive the conclusion of M. de Mofras' work, we may possibly revert to the subject,—unless events should give to the Oregon Territory an importance similar to that now possessed by California. In the meantime, we thank him for what he has already written. With all its bias, which, indeed, he is at no pains to conceal; with all its dryness of detail, and an arrangement very far from lucid, his book is of great value, and should be read by all who wish to acquire an accurate knowledge of the present condition of Mexico, and especially of its maritime districts.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

An Apology for the Greek Church; or, Hints on the Means of promoting the Religious Improvement of the Greek Nation, by E. Masson. Edited by J. S. Howson, M.A.—A pamphlet of some interest on a subject little understood,—the actual opinions of the Greeks in reference to the matters of controversy between the Eastern and Western churches. It is the work of a Scotchman (Mr. Masson), who has been in Greece twenty years, and filled some high posts at Athens,—not the least of which is a seat in the supreme court of the Areopagus. His competency, therefore, no less than his impartiality, may be fairly assumed. There can be no doubt that this publication must do good, since it proves that the points of difference between the Greek and reformed churches are much fewer and less important than is generally supposed. At the same time, reasons enough are given why proselytism need not be at-

tempted. The Greeks will not be converted to our way of thinking; but (what is of greater moment) they are well disposed to live on terms of goodwill with all who will not interfere with their opinions and practices. They will not attack, and they do not wish to be compelled to defend.

Letters on National Education in France, addressed to Lord Wharncliffe, by A. Davitt.—These letters profess to describe the evils of the existing system of education in France—public education, we mean, as provided by the State. The author complains that the masters of the primary and secondary schools are, themselves, so badly instructed in the normal schools as to be unfit for the duties of the situation,—that they are so wretchedly paid as to have no liking for their profession, and no respect from their pupils,—and that in both of them, no zeal is exhibited on the part of the constituted managers and visitors. Yet, after all, it is manifest that we, in England, have learnt, and may yet learn, something useful from our neighbours, both as to the constitution of such schools, and the mode of conducting them.

Correspondence Suivie et Fervide, formant un Petit Roman de Famille, par M. Bauvissat de Mulroy.—This is the third edition of a little book intended, we presume, for young ladies who know enough of the French language to understand it. But the tone of it is scarcely adapted to English taste and feelings; nor do we see that the Family Tale has much interest to recommend it. The style is good enough.

A Dictionary of the Scottish Language, by Captain Thomas Brown.—Useful for all who would read Burns and other writers in the Scottish vernacular. It has two other advantages: it is very cheap—and it is portable.

Heads of an Analysis of English and of French History, for the use of Schools, by Dawson W. Turner, M.A.—We can see no utility in this meagre compilation. It is in every respect a poor performance.

The Epodes, Satires, and Epistles of Horace, translated by the late Rev. F. Howes, M.A.—In noticing works of this kind, it is sometimes best to let the translators speak for themselves, and to compare them with former efforts. Thus we select the first twenty-eight lines of *Carm. 2. Vitæ Rusticæ Laudes*—

"Beatus ille qui procul negotiis," &c.

Mr. Howes's Version.

Happy the man, who, far from busy coil,
(As lived our simple sires of old)
With his own team ploughs his paternal soil,
A stranger to the cares of gold!
Roused by no clarion to the battle's brunt,
Scared at no wintry billow's roar,
He shuns the Forum's strife, nor deigns to hunt
Full leaves at the proud man's door:
More pleased around tall poplars to espouse
His newly raised progeny of vines,
With wary hook he prunes the straggling boughs
And each more hopeful shoot intertwines;
Or views his lowing herd, as in the len
They graze aloof; or in pure crocks
Stores from the comb the nectar of the bee;
Or shears the younglings of his flocks;
Or, when his golden head boon autumn rears,
Crown'd with ripe fruits and flowers, on high,
With pride he cults his own ingrafted pears,
Or grapes that with the purple vie—
Thee, with dull gifts, Priapus, watchful god!
And thee, Silvanus! to salute.
Sweet his repose, now on the tufted sod
Now at some aged beech-tree's root—
Beneath their banks while rippling streamlets creep
The groves with warbling plaints resound,
And murmurs that invite to balmy sleep
Are heard from gushing rills around!

Dr. Francis's Version.

Like the first mortals blest he is,
From debts, and usury, and business free,
With his own team who ploughs the soil,
Which grateful once confess'd his father's toil;
The sounds of war nor break his sleep;
Nor the rough storm that harrows up the deep;
He shuns the courtier's haughty doors,
And the loud science of the bar abjures.
Sometimes his marriageable vines
Around the lofty bridegroom elm he twines;
Or lope the vagrant bledges away,
Ingrafting better as the old decay;
Or in the vale with joy surveys
His lowing herd safe-wandering as they graze;
Or careful stores the flowing gold
Prest from the hive, or shears his tender fold;
Or, when with various fruits o'erpeared
The mellow Autumn lifts his beauteous head,
His grafted pears or grapes, that vye
With the rich purple of the Tyrian dye,
Grateful he gathers, and repays
His guardian gods upon their festal days;
Sometimes beneath an ancient shade,
Or on the matted grass supinely laid,

Where pours the mountain stream along,
And feathered warblers chant the soothing song,
And where the lucid fountain flows,
And with its murmurs courts him to repose.

The first translation appears to us superior to the second as a whole,—but one or two passages are better rendered by Francis. The extracts above are a fair specimen of both translators.—We must observe that the volume before us is a posthumous one, and does not include the Odes properly so called.

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Arnold's *Later Roman Commonwealth*, 2 vols. 8vo. 11. 8s. cl.
Beloni's *Travels*, 10th edit. 12mo. 3s. cl.
Berghaus & Johnstone's *Physical Atlas*, to be completed in 10 Parts, Part I. folio, 11. 1s. 6d.
Chillingworth's *Religion of Protestants*, new edit. by Nichols, 12mo. 7s. cl.
Contrasts between the Righteous and the Wicked, by the Hon. Mrs. Penrose, 12mo. 4s. 6d. cl.
Crescent and the Cross, by Elliot Warburton, Esq. 3rd edition, 2 vols. post 8vo. 21s. cl.
Edward's (Dr.) *Illustrations of the Wisdom and Benevolence of the Deity as Manifest in Nature*, square 16mo. 2s. 6d. cl.
England and its People, 18mo. 3s. 6d. cl.
Flowers of the Forest, new edit. 12mo. 1s. 6d. cl.
Hamilton's *Life in Earnest*, 18th thousand, 18mo. 1s. 6d. cl.
Hebrew Grammar, by Prof. Nordheim, 2nd edit. 2 vols. royal 8vo. 11. 4s. cl.
Hind's *Principles & Practice of Arithmetic*, 5th ed. 12mo. 4s. 6d. bds.
Holland's (Mrs.) *The Officer's Life*, new edit. 18mo. 2s. 6d. cl.
Johnstone's *National Atlas*, in Monthly Parts, Part I. folio, coloured, 10s. 6d.
Juvenile Museum of Entertainment, royal 8vo. 7s. cl.
Little Book of Objects, square 16mo. 2s. 6d. cl.
Little Mary, a Tale for Children, in 51 Dialogues, square, 2s. cl.
London Art-Union Prize Annual, large paper proofs, imp. 4to. 4l. 4s. 6d. moreo; ditto, small paper, 4to. 2l. 2s. cl.
Lumley's *Lunatic Acts*, 8 & 9 Viet. c. 100 & 120, 12mo. 5s. bds.
Master Passion (The), and other Tales, by T. C. Grattan, Vol. III. post 8vo. 10s. 6d. bds.
Memorie Expériences, by Spencer T. Hall, author of 'The Forester's Offering,' 8vo. 2s. 6d. 5d.
Memoir of the Life and Writings of Thomas Cartwright, B.D. the Distinguished Puritan Reformer, &c. by Rev. B. Brook, 1 vol. 8vo. 10s. 6d. cl.
Old Flanders, or Legends and Traditions of Belgium, by Octave Delepierre, 2 vols. post 8vo. 11. 1s. bds.
On the Nature of the Scholar, and its Manifestations, by J. G. Fichte, translated from the German, with a Memoir of the Author, by Wm. Smith, crown 8vo. 6s. cl.
Sandland's (J. D.) *Wanderer*, and other Poems, 12mo. 5s. cl.
Shilliter's (Rev. Robert) *Sanctification of the Elect People of God*, 12mo. 2s. 6d. cl.
Shilliter's (Rev. R.) *Thirteen Sermons*, 12mo. 5s. cl.
Trottoppe's (Rev. W.) *S. Justini Philosophi et Martyris Apologia Prima*, with corrected Text and English Introduction and Notes, 8vo. 7s. 6d. bds.
Wandering Jew, (Roscoe's Library Edition) complete, super royal 8vo. 9s. cl.; ditto, Vol. II. super royal 8vo. 6s. cl.
Wandering Jew (The), 18mo. 2s. cl. (Diprose's Edition.)
Winer's (Dr. G. B.) *Greek Idioms of the New Testament*, royal 8vo. reduced to 12s. cl.
Woman in the Nineteenth Century, by S. Margaret Fuller, 8s. 6d. 5d.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

Iago, Lago d'Iseo, August.

BEFORE being driven down from the lakes into the towns by such storms as even mountain countries are not often visited by, few matters presented themselves worthy of being noted, because not sufficiently insisted upon elsewhere. This neglect, however, will not, I apprehend, continue much longer. To judge from appearances at Como, and tidings from that sequestered "water" the Lago di Orta, this district runs some danger of being as completely "unparadised" as the Rhine-land, or the Righi. The other day, for instance, while strolling down the cool plane-tree avenue from Cadenabbia, I came upon a bevy of Abigails blocking up the garden steps of the Sommariva Palace (a scene for Watteau to people), one of them with a cigar in her mouth! Then, it was not easy to escape from the *ciarleria* of their mistresses, whether planning pic-nics to the Piniana, which superb and luxurious villa, since it has fallen into the hands of the Principe Belgiojoso is really worth a pilgrimage, for all who desire to study the sumptuous Italian fashion of arranging a summer residence, or a sail as far down as Pasta's Villa, that they may admire her new orangery, and take satirical note of the rustic attire in which the Medea of our golden opera-days, now directs the embellishment of her fairy-land—or, perhaps, to compare notes on the last night's arrival of a certain popular *contrabbandista's* boat: an event of high fun and excitement: for its owner is parcel Harlequin, parcel Orson—and tea for themselves, and cigars for their maids, cannot be so satisfactorily procured from any other source. But though conscious of all these movements, (and a stir even among the ephemera is not to be overlooked by any traveller who cares about phenomena in the social atmosphere), the tourist need be little annoyed thereby, while he courts the influences of the delicious climate; or while despising steam-boats, he wanders off into nooks and corners for fragments of Art, or characteristics of nationality beyond the range of the mere routine enthusiast. I, at least, have found much to

moralize upon, of which I had not heard before. To begin with a familiar "lion," the aforesaid Sommariva Palace, now in possession of a Prussian Princess. I knew, of course, Thorwaldsen's 'Triumph of Alexander,' and Canova's 'Palamedes,' and 'Cupid and Psyche' (the last how operative in the interlacement of its flowing lines!) before I saw them. But after having read the elaborate article which appeared not long since in one of our Quarterly Reviews, on the 'Painters of Modern Italy,' wherein, if I recollect right, some of them received high praise, I was naturally a good deal interested by the Romeo and Juliet of Hayez, which is there:—alas! that I must add, amused no less than interested. Can you fancy an Italian seeing Shakespeare's heroine, with the eyes of a Jan Steen, or a Hogarth, when busy over his history pictures of Mistress Mary Hackabout? The scene chosen is the main parting of the two lovers—the thing accomplished is a *middle-aged* gentleman taking leave of one of those whom Mrs. Quickly forbade the pupil of Dr. Caius to name. Nor is there anything in the painting to redeem awkwardness of attitude and vulgarity of expression, for the handling is heavy, and the tone ink.

But within the compass of an easy day's excursion from this vexatious mistake, is one of the master-pieces of old Italy, the *Luini fresco* in the church of Santa Maria degli Angeli, at Lugano. The church itself is worth a visit. It is a true painter's building: barred into compartments by intersecting walls and narrow arches: "the choir is locked off with prison-like iron-gates, and narrow, heavily-blinded windows aiding these dispositions, produce that play of light and shadow, which set off the peasant woman murmuring her confession into the priest's ear, and the friar in his brown woollen robes, and that long step peculiar to petticoated men, with precisely such picturesque effects as are loved by our Robertses and Goodalls. In another respect, the church is not a painter's building: since rarely has painter's work, even when thrust away in

dim chapels roofed with gold
Perfumed with incense smoke,

enjoyed a worse light than the same noble fresco, which fills the entire space above the entrance of the choir. We saw it, too, late in the day, so that many of the delicate details and tints were lost. Further, the composition is too vast and complicated to be taken in during one brief hour's visit. But all these drawbacks allowed for, as also the wrecks wrought by Time on a work seemingly little known, and not appreciated, this Crucifixion left an impression on me which will not be effaced. I need not tell you what are Luini's characteristics as a designer. The formality of his subjects,—I mean as regards the arrangement of the three crucified figures,—however favourable to architectonic composition, is not likely to inspire one reserved rather than enterprising, with brilliant inventions; and here are merely the personages of the mysterious tragedy as they have been again and again set forth; the compartment on the left of the picture being principally given up to the mourners; that on the right to the persecutors, who crowd, perhaps symbolically, round the death-tree of the impenitent thief, which is traditionally crowned by an awaiting demon. It appeared to us that the artist, contrary to what might have been expected, was strongest in the latter, the least spiritual parts of his work; a soldier, in particular, in attendance on the mounted centurion, is drawn and painted with a force almost equalling that of Luini's master. In the middle distance (according to the antique fashion of crowding many histories into one work,) a second smaller picture, or pair of pictures, is introduced—the Procession to Calvary—the Entombment—all treated with like elaborate felicity. Above these and their background of quaint landscape, forming a sort of aureole of glory round the head of the central figure, is a group of cherubim, on a ground of intense blue sky, perhaps the sweetest and most individual part of the picture. On the spandrils of the arches supporting the wall on which the picture is painted, are a St. Sebastian and a companion saint, whom I am unable to name; both, life-size, are remarkably fine figures; but the undraped flesh of the former, as an admirable piece of painting, rivetted my eye as the more specially interesting of the two. This is but

a meagre account in default of a better; but not meagre should be the praise of the technical merits of the work; and these strike the eye at the first moment, and grow upon it ever after: in brief, it is a delicate example of fresco colouring, harmonious and rich in contrast; yet it has none of the plaster paleness which I have heard some maintain was the legitimate manner of fresco art,—holding the work excellent in proportion as it resembled a slightly tinted drawing,—nor any of the foxy browns and leaden neutral shadows, by which some artists fancy they display force, when, in truth, they only thereby escape from a difficulty; but honest, cool flesh tints, manly and delicate as was required, and for the draperies, pure intense colours, bright without fierceness. The value of this example can hardly be over-rated; and it would, indeed, be a royal piece of patronage worthy of all honour, to send some of our aspirants to look at, and to paint from, this Lugano fresco. I am not aware if it has been ever engraved. Perhaps these few words may assist in calling attention to a spot, which, though known to some of our artists, is, I suspect, something like a *terra incognita* to our amateurs.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

At the evening meeting on Friday, Mr. Hartshorne read a paper on Porchester Castle. The natural position of Porchester, he observed, rendered it eligible as an early fortress, so soon as the Romans had gained a footing in Great Britain; the precise age of it is uncertain, but probably later than the works at Richborough, Pevensey and Dover. In the uncertainty as to the precise dates of the different Roman fortresses on the southern coast, it is essential to examine the modes of construction employed in the works themselves, since this plan will exhibit the close analogy and characteristic marks of Roman architecture in England, with what is observable on the opposite coast; and show that all the military works of that age are precisely the same in their principles. The works on the coast are the earliest, and as the conquest of the county extended, the same quadrangular forms of encampment followed its progress. The foundations of these buildings upon examination show them to have been laid in conformity to the rules given by Vitruvius. The towers on the walls, the modes adopted to give them stability, and the method of binding together, by means of Roman brick or tile, the bad building materials employed in the work, are all in obedience to the precepts of this great architect, as shown at Leicester, Lincoln, Wroxeter, Burgh, Richborough, Dover, Porchester and other places. The durability of these tiles is occasioned by the clay having been thrown up two years before it was used. The more important question of cements was next entered upon; from which it appeared that a careful analysis having been made of several, they were found to agree with the rules of Vitruvius, and, moreover, show that their peculiar hardness depends upon their coarseness, which hastens crystallization, and causes the latent cohesiveness of the slaked lime to be brought into action, so that the mass became more perfectly carbonated. By the application of this kind of inquiry, it is proved that Porchester still exhibits, notwithstanding the continued repairs it has undergone, from the reign of Henry II. to the present day, indisputable marks of its high antiquity. But there is no connecting link between the genuine Roman work of the second century and the Norman keep of the twelfth. This keep, which was the temporary residence of King John on nineteen different occasions, gives a curious insight into the domestic inconveniences of the early English monarchs, who, when compelled to stay within doors, must have passed much of their time in murky twilight. These castles were always held by constables under the Crown, and garrisoned by its tenants, who were bound to perform service here during time of war, on which tenure they frequently held their estates. In conclusion, Mr. Hartshorne referred to various documents illustrative of the expense, the number of workmen employed in the repairs of the castle, &c., and showed their importance and value in investigations of this description. The church, within the outer-bailly of the castle,

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a fine Norman structure, originally cruciform before the south transept was destroyed, was described in the morning on the spot, by Mr. Sharpe, who was of opinion that a conventual building had originally been attached to the south of the church. A few traces remain of a building abutting from the church, and evidence of the existence of a convent within the castle walls is said to have been recently discovered, in a MS. record of a very early date.

Mr. A. J. BERSFORD HOPE directed attention to the dangerous condition of the west front of Crowland Abbey; he would not insure it, he said, against the next high wind.

Mr. EDMUND SHARPE read a paper, 'On the early use of the Pointed Arch,' or the period of transition, as he afterwards expressed it; between the first and second great eras of Christian Architecture. Mr. Sharpe confined his observations to a period between 1130 and 1180. Of all the new elements introduced during this transitional period, he observed, the earliest, and certainly the most important in all its bearings and results, was the pointed arch, which, if it did not originate, certainly inspired and controlled the rest. He would not enter into that fertile field of learning and conjecture the "Origin of the Pointed Arch," but would restrict what he had to say to the causes which led to its first introduction into Christian architecture, and to its rapid and universal adoption; and these causes he was disposed to look for rather in some real advantage in point of construction than in any supposed superiority in point of decoration.

No one who has examined with any attention the architecture of the transitional period could fail to observe the remarkable circumstance that in these buildings, the pointed form of architecture is to be found principally in the vaulting, the piers, arches and the arches of the crossing; in other words, over the large openings only, whilst in all piercings of the wall, in the doors, the windows, the arcades, and over all the small openings the circular form is preserved unaltered. The pointed arch was not introduced, therefore, for the sake of decoration or effect—it was introduced for the purposes of construction—and he would, therefore, adopt the happy designation already received of calling the one *Arches of Construction* and the other *Arches of Decoration*. The builders of the twelfth century discovered that the pointed arch possessed, in point of construction, certain advantages over the circular arch; they, therefore, introduced it into all those parts of a structure where strength was required; while, from a predilection for the earlier form, they retained the circular arch in all other parts where the safety and stability of the building were not involved. Nothing is more common in the large circular vaulting of the Romanesque style than to find the crown of the transverse arch considerably depressed. This occurs constantly in the long barrel vaultings of the south of France, as well as in the quadripartite vaultings of the north. Depressed circular arches are not uncommon in England, and whether the depression took place immediately after the completion of the work, or at some subsequent period, the depression read this lesson to the builders, that there was a liability in a circular arch of large span to lose its form at the crown. It must have been a matter, moreover, of common observation to every one acquainted with the architecture of the transitional period, that the pointed arch, in its earlier stages, was generally very obtuse in form, and that the variation from the circle is at times so trifling as scarcely to be perceptible. In the Church of Alstadt, in Bavaria, the arch he had found, from actual admeasurement, constructed from one centre only. One discovery led to another, and he was now enabled to assert, from actual admeasurement, that many of the obtusely-pointed arches of the transitional period are not constructed upon the true and acknowledged principles of a pointed arch—that is, from two distinct centres; but are to be considered simply as slight alterations of the semicircular form. He was of opinion that the pointed arch first made its appearance in the vaulting arches, the arches of the crossing, and the pier arches. He had observed in several churches in the south of France, that whilst all their arches of construction are pointed, all their arches of decoration are circular.

But he must be understood to confine his observations to a period between the years 1130 and 1180. An important inquiry yet remained to be made. When did the pointed arch first make its appearance in the arches of construction? Over what length of time did this discrimination in the use of the two forms of arch extend? How long did the pointed arch thus remain the servant, and the circular arch the master? And at what precise point of time did the pointed arch obtain that ascendancy in the decoration of buildings, which enabled it to accomplish that revolution which its admission in construction had already commenced? There is perhaps no building of the transitional period which better illustrates what he had been advancing than the Church of Kirkstall Abbey; it also fortunately happens that there is perhaps no building to which an authentic date can be more satisfactorily attributed; for we know that the whole of the convent migrated, in the year 1148, from the place of its original establishment to a spot on the banks of the river Aire, where it now stands, and that in the year 1152 the church was already commenced. The building may, therefore, be looked upon as representing the prevailing character of the architecture of the very middle of this transitional period; and it is, therefore, particularly fortunate that the entire church is preserved to us in its original state, the only insertion being that of the east window, and the only addition that of the pinnacles on the gables. He referred to this church as confirmatory of the view he had laid down.

The MARQUIS OF NORTHAMPTON directed attention to the church of St. Andrew, at Vercelli, in Italy, built by Cardinal Guala, Cardinal Legate in England, during the reign of King John, in which all the exterior arches were rounded, all the interior pointed. This he brought forward in illustration of the ingenious theory of Mr. Sharpe.

On Saturday, in the Historical Section, the Rev. CHARLES HARTSHORNE read a paper, 'On the Ancient Parliament at Acton Burnell, in Shropshire.'

Mr. NEWTON read a paper, by Sir F. Madden, 'On the Common Seal and Privileges of the Men of Alverstone, in Hants.' The seal, of which an impression was handed round, from a recent impression in wax, furnished by the Rev. T. L. Shapcott, of Southampton, is circular, about two inches and a half in diameter, and was executed early in the 13th century. In the centre is represented in high relief an episcopal figure seated, no doubt intended for St. Swithin, having a low mitre on the head, and holding in the right hand a white-headed crozier or pastoral staff, and in the left a book, probably of the Gospels, the cover of which is studded with round bosses. Around the edge of the seal is the following inscription in capital letters:—"Sigill. comune hominum prioris Sci. Swithuni, de Alverstone." (The common seal of the men of the Prior of St. Swithin of Alverstone.) It would hence appear that this was the seal used in common by the tenants of the ancient vill or manor of Alverstone, which will be better known by its modern name of Alverstoke. Very little has been recorded of the history of this manor, but from an entry in the register of John de Pontissara, still preserved in the episcopal archives of Winchester, we learn, that Alverstoke, together with Extone and Wydehay, were bestowed on the church of St. Swithin by a noble Saxon lady named Alwara, for the soul of her husband, Leowin, and a similar notice is found in *Leland's Collectanea*, extracted apparently from the chronicle of Thomas Rudbourne, a monk of Winchester. After some further remarks on the history of the manor, Sir F. Madden proceeded to the consideration of a vellum roll, presented to him in 1831 by Mr. G. Soaper, of Guildford, and which serves to throw some additional light on the history of the seal above described. This vellum roll or charter is an agreement between the convent of St. Swithin, Winchester, acting by the prior, Andrew de Londonia, by which charter certain privileges are granted to the men of Alverstoke. Andrew de Londonia, the prior mentioned in this chirograph, held the office from 1256 to 1261 or 1262, within which period the deed must have been executed. Between the Latin charter and a translation into English which is added, occurs the following me-

morandum, which concerns the subject of these remarks:—"The wordes about the sylver seale, which remaineth with the aunter deod or charter aforesaid, are translated into English as followeth, viz.—'This is the seal of Saint Swethins, belonging to the tenants of Alwardstoke.'" There can be little doubt but that the silver seal here mentioned must be the original matrix of the seal described at the commencement of this paper, and some additional information respecting it is given on the roll, by which it appears that in the year 1606 the silver matrix of the common seal of the men of Alwardstoke was in the hands of one of the tenants of the manor, but the following questions arise respecting it, a solution of which is greatly to be desired:—1. Was this seal always in the possession of the tenants? 2. If this seal was used by the tenants in common, how is it that in the deed executed with Prior Andrew, three of their number are mentioned as affixing their seals on behalf of the rest, and no common seal mentioned? 3. Where is the matrix of this seal at present? The wax impression must have been taken at no very distant period, but Mr. Shapcott has no distinct recollection how it came into his hands. In all probability an inspection of the ancient cartulary of the monastery of St. Swithin, preserved among the muniments of Wolvrey Palace, might serve to clear up the difficulties respecting the use of this singular seal, or some ancient documents might be found among the archives of the dean and chapter of Winchester to which an original impression of the seal may remain affixed. To these points of inquiry Sir F. Madden begged to draw attention.

A translation of the curious Charter referred to by Sir F. Madden, has been obligingly sent to us by Mr. Slight, of Portsmouth, with a quotation from Domesday Book, and another from what is called 'Manorial Customs,' relating to Alverstoke. The first records that the church holds Alwardstoke; it was always abbey land; it was assessed at six pounds. A knight held half a hide. Sawinus held it, but was not allowed to remove anywhere—it is worth twenty-six shillings. The other sets forth that we claim jurisdiction over the manor, borough, and lands of Alwardstoke, over the sea-shore between high and low water mark, and over the sea so far as a man can ride into it on a white horse at the low water time, and overreach with a lance.

The following is a translation of the Charter:—"To all christian people to whom a knowledge of this present Charter shall come. Andrew, by Divine permission, prior of the Convent of St. Swithin, at Winchester, sends health in the Lord. Know ye, that we of our own free will and consent, have granted, and by this our present charter have confirmed to all our men or tenants of our manor of Alwardstoke, that they and their posterity shall be free for ever, as well from fine or being taxed, as also from paying any rental as salt due; and from Chirche set or Kirke-sida-fle [tribute of corn to be paid at the feast of Saint Michael, and tribute by every tenant that holds plough-land, payable to the Lord of the soil at Christmas, of three hens, a capon or cock, and at Easter an hundred eggs], and of having their swine taken for pannage or sums of money, for the King's service in war or urgent occasions, sometimes called Tallagis. And it shall henceforward be lawful for them to make their wills, and freely dispose of their goods, and their children [by this clause the tenants were relieved and made free from the state of villany of the feudal law]. And they shall be free from warrants and suits to the Courts of the Hundreds, save only within Alwardstoke. Also, we grant unto them, all the lands which they now hold, to have and to hold to them and their heirs, and to whomsoever they shall give or assign the same, (except to religious men, that is, to members of religious communities), freely and without disturbance by lawful inheritance for ever, so as by such their gift, sale or assignment, there be no impeachment, nor hindrance unto us or our church in our rights. In consideration of which, this our grant and charter, the said tenants with one assent and consent have agreed to pay unto us, and our successors, and to our church of Saint Swithin, at Winchester, *fourpence* for each acre with the appurtenances for all the lands of the manor, at four times in the

year, (that is to say) at the feast of all Saints one penny, and at the feast of the Purification of our Blessed Lady, one penny, and at the feast of the Holy Cross, which is in the month of May, one penny, and at the feast of St. Michael, one penny for every acre of land of the said manor, to be measured by the pole of 16½ feet. Except always that for all the land which is betwixt the two waters, (that is to say) from the water-course where the mill of the almoner of our church is situated, unto that other water-course which runneth under the orchards of the parsons of Alverstoke, for which the tenants of Stoake, Forton, Brockhurst, and Bury, shall pay for every acre six pennies yearly (that is to say), at every one of the terms before mentioned, one penny and a half, except a yardland and a half which is betwixt the bounds of the same water-courses, for which they shall pay for every acre yearly four pennies (that is to say), at every one of the term days aforesaid, for every acre one penny. And every one of the tenants of the said manor, after the death of his ancestor, shall give to pay for his holding of the land, so much as he pays yearly for rent. Moreover, we have granted to our said tenants, that at the first coming of us or of our steward, to hold a court after the feast day of Saint Michael, they choose three of the most efficient and discreet men among them, of the said manor whom they shall present to us or our steward, to the end we may make choice of one of them, to be our *Borough-reeve*, or bailiff for the year, and that year being ended, they shall then choose and present, out of which in likewise we or our steward may appoint one to be our bailiff, who shall take the oath on the Holy Evangelists, that he shall faithfully levy and seize all manorial suits, escheats, and forfeitures, as well great as small, and present the same to us at our next coming, or to our steward, without concealment of any. To the end, according to the law of the land, they may be taxed, in such sort notwithstanding as the duties and profits thereof arising, be always preserved and reserved to ourselves and our church. And it is further agreed betwixt us and our said tenants, that all manner of controversies and pleadings shall be pleaded and tried without delay, in the court of Alverstoke, either before us, or in the presence of our steward, without any suing out of the king's writs; so as the same be done according to the laws and customs of this realm of England, according to such course as freeholders of the shire do observe, so shall every one recover his right in our court and not otherwise, unless he find that justice be not rightly ministered unto him; nevertheless, they shall appear when summoned before the King's Justices of the assize, thereto to answer as they were wont to do. In witness whereof to this present charter, indented like a fine, to that part which remaineth with the tenants of Alverstoke, we have affixed the seal of our Conventual Church, and to the other part indented which remaineth in our Church of Saint Thomas of Forton, Richard Bishopp, Henry son of Pranett Robert Bishopp, Robert son of Arnold and John Pennie, for and in the names of all the rest of the tenants of the whole manor, with one assent and consent have set all their seals."

Mr. HAWKINS read two communications, 'On the Exchange and Mint at Winchester.' He commenced by saying, that for the purpose of facilitating the operations of the mints by supplying them with bullion, and circulating the new coinage throughout various districts, exchanges were established in various places, and they were invested with peculiar privileges; they had a monopoly of all dealings in bullion; to them was brought all plate, bullion or foreign coin for melting and exchanging, nor could any precious metals or coin be imported or exported but through their medium. One of these was certainly established at Winchester, but at what time, how long it existed, in what manner, or by what persons it was conducted, very little is known. Though Ruding mentions a moneyer and an exchange having been granted by King John, it does not seem to have been known to him that any such establishment was ever in active operation in Winchester. Its existence, however, is ascertained, by the mention of it in some still remaining docu-

ments, from which it would appear that its relative importance was great, and its operations extensive, for we find many distant mints supplied by it with bullion and treasure for their coinages. In the 26 Hen. II. the sheriff of Southampton had several allowances made to him on account of expenses evidently incurred in the operations of the exchange at Winchester, viz.—"For the hire of carts and purchase of barrels for the treasure which was sent to London to make new money, 27s." "And also for the hire of carts to carry treasure to Oxford, to be sent to the moneyers of York, 19s. 6d." "And in the carriage of the treasure sent to Northampton, to make money, 13s." "And in the carriage of the treasure sent to Exeter, to make money, 14s." "And for furnaces and crucibles and linen cloth and wax and small necessities, for the assay of the silver to be delivered to the moneyers of England, 32s." "And for taking the treasure chest to London, 11s." And for taking another chest to Woodstock, with treasure, 3s." It is possible that this last entry may not have reference to the mint or exchange at Winchester, but may be charges incurred in the removal of the king's own treasure from one royal residence to another. "And in the liveries of Brun Burdin and Mansell the exchangers, from the feast of the Decollation of St. John the Baptist, to the Octaves of St. Michael, 53s. 4d." "And for one iron-bound chest, for the King's exchange, 7s. 6d." In the 27 Hen. II. the sheriff of Southampton, accounting for the farm of Winchester, was allowed the following expenses:—"And to Walter Fitz Gerald and Rolland the King's exchanger at Winchester, 10l. 2s. 8d. for their livery for 152 days, to each 8d. per day; and to one of them 113s. 4d. from Easter, close to the feast of St. Michael." "And for the hire of houses and in the small necessities of the exchange, 58s." The same sheriff is allowed in the farm of the county of Southampton, in the same year, "For taking the King's gold from London to Winchester, 3s." This, however, again, was probably a charge relating to the royal establishment, not to the mint or exchange. In the 28 Hen. II. the sheriff, in accounting for the farm of the city of Winchester, is allowed—"In the livery of Rolland the exchanger, for the whole year, 12l. 3s. 4d." "And to the same 2 marks for the hire of the house of the exchange and his own dwelling." "And in the cost and conduct of William Fitz Herbert, the assayer of Canterbury, from Winchester to London, 7s." In the 32 Hen. II. the sheriff of the county of Southampton claims allowance for "the livery of Rolland the exchanger, of Westminster, for the quarter of a year before he quitted, 60s. 10d." In the 6 Ric. I. account is rendered of 20 marks of the farm of the exchange of Winchester; and in the following year—"Richard the melter, and William the moneyer, render account of 80 marks for the farm of the exchange of Winchester." From the above entries there cannot be any doubt that an exchange was established in this ancient city of Winchester, and that its operations were important and extensive. It must be lamented that the notices which still exist are so scanty; a great part of them have already been made known by the valuable work of Mr. Ruding; but for much that is new and important we are indebted to the researches of our secretary, Mr. T. Hudson Turner.

'Notices of the Mint at Winchester, by E. HAWKINS, Esq.—The earliest known coins which circulated in Britain, and those probably only in the more southern provinces, were formed upon the model of the coins of Greece, and were chiefly of gold. The types of these pieces were imitations, more or less rude, of the money of the kings of Macedonia, modified from time to time according to the skill or taste of different artists. To these succeeded, in this island, purely Roman money struck for general circulation throughout all the branches of the empire; these with the decay of the empire declined in character of workmanship, and in their intrinsic value. Rude copies, generally esteemed counterfeit, and therefore almost universally rejected from the cabinets of collectors, seem to have supplied the circulation in England, after the departure of the Romans, till the little native princes issued those pieces which are now known by the name of *skellette*, and which have not yet been examined with

that care which is necessary to enable the antiquary to assign them to any locality or person. The Saxon rule became at length established, and then commenced a coinage bearing the name of the prince by whose authority it was issued, and that of the moneyer to whom he committed the privilege of striking it; and after some time was added the name of the place where it was minted. There are not any existing records which satisfactorily account for money of the same prince having been issued from so many different places; but it may be conjectured that it was more safe as well as more convenient to transmit dies from the capital, than actual coin to various towns for facilitating circulation in their adjoining districts; and as there was considerable profit attached to the privilege it might be advantageous to the prince to divide his favours amongst his adherents dispersed throughout his little territories. It is supposed that the dies were generally made in the capital, and transmitted to the local mints. Athelstan appears to have paid attention to the coinage, and to have issued several mandates for its better regulation, establishing a uniformity of type, and limiting the number of moneyers in each district. In his days Winchester must have been a place of considerable importance, or at least the district of which it was a kind of local capital, must have demanded a more than usual amount of circulating medium, for six moneyers were established in this city, and only eight were required for London. Little information can be obtained from written documents respecting the mint during the period of Saxon rule, and it is chiefly from the coins themselves which have been preserved, that any conjecture can be formed as to its operations. In the survey of Winchester, reign of Henry I., the following names occur of moneyers in the time of Edward the Confessor: *Godwinus Soeche*, master moneyer, who held one house of the fee of the Bishop of Winchester, *Alwinus Aitardessone*, *Androbodus*, *Alestanus*, *Wimundus*, of whom there is indeed no direct mention, but his wife is named as a tenant. It is remarkable that no notice of a mint occurs in Domesday book, although the coins both of William I. and II. still existing prove that the operations which had been conducted under the Saxon monarchs were still continued. The coins of the Norman sovereigns were formerly very rare, but the disinterment of the large hoards at Beaworth and York, have rendered some types of them more common; and, in the former of these, we find the name of Winchester occurring much more frequently than that of any other town. In the second year of Henry I., 1102, the mint at Winchester was destroyed by a fire, which consumed, at the same time, the royal palace and a considerable portion of the town; it was, however, probably rebuilt without much delay, and conducted with its former activity, for in the twenty-fifth year of this king, Winchester was the place where all the moneyers of England were summoned to appear, that the frauds which had been committed in debasing the coin might be investigated. The result disclosed a very general system of fraud, and the punishment of mutilation of the person and loss of the right hand was inflicted upon every one of these officers except three; and to the honour of Winchester it is to be recorded, that these three whose integrity was established, were all moneyers attached to the mint of this city. In the time of Athelstan, there were six mints in Winchester. In the survey taken in the reign of Henry I., it is stated there were in the market-place five mints which were abolished by the king's order, 'in mercato fuerunt v monete que sunt diffuse precepto regis.' As there is not any reason to suppose that all coinage at Winchester was suspended at this time, it is to be concluded that those mints only were abolished which were situated in the market-place; and it is probable that arrangements were made for conducting all the Winchester coinage at one mint; for, in subsequent documents when reference is made to this city, the term used is "the mint," "the mint-house"—in the singular number. From the before-mentioned survey it appears the monks of St. Swithin held of the fee of the bishop the same house which Godwin, as master moneyer, had held in the time of the Confessor, that they did custom, and paid 37s. Ruding, by a

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slight inadvertency, misinterpreted the passage, and supposed the monks to have held this house from Godwin Soecke himself, who, however, had been only a tenant, and must have been dead some years before the survey was made. The monks of St. Swithin probably became tenants of the bishop when the premises were no longer wanted in consequence of the diminished number of mints. In the reign of Stephen money was coined in Winchester, and in a survey made by Henry, bishop of Winchester, in 1148, Sanson and Siward are mentioned as moneyers. In the seventh of Henry II., 1160, the sheriff of Hampshire, in accounting for the farm of Winchester, "renders account of 20*l.* for the mint or moneyers of Winchester;" and in the account of the same sheriff, under the head of Winchester, 13 Henry II., it appears that "Herebert, the son of Westman, and the other moneyers render account of 100*l.* of amercement, because they worked together in one house." The following year the same sheriff renders account of money paid to the "aid of the moneyers of Winchester, amounting to 106*s.* 8*d.*" In the 26th of Henry II., 1179, there appears to have been a survey or inspection of the dies used in the coinage; for we find that the chest with the dies of the moneyers was conveyed from Winchester first to Oxford, then to Northampton, and brought back to Winchester, and that 7*s.* 10*d.* was paid to cover all the expenses of these conveyances. In the night of July 14 (the eve of St. Swithin) 1180, the 27th Henry II., while the workmen were employed about the new coinage, which was ordered to be issued this year, a fire broke out, by which the mint was consumed, and with it the better part of the city. It must have been speedily rebuilt, for it appears that in the next year 37*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.* was allowed to the citizens of Winchester for works done in the house of the mint; and, in the pipe-roll of 29 Henry II., it is stated that 4*s.* 4*d.* were expended in the works of the mint house by the king's writ. This mint-house, the one allowed to remain when five were suppressed by Henry I., was situated in all probability near the west gate. In this same year, 1180, the citizens of Winchester had an allowance in their fee farm rent of 80*l.* in default of eight moneyers; and it is not improbable that this compensation was made at the time and in reference to the order then made for the issue of a new coinage. In the following and some succeeding years, certainly as late as 1186, the allowance was reduced to 50*l.* for five moneyers, the number which had been suppressed by Henry I. In the 30 and 31 Hen. II. the sheriff of Southampton "rendered account of 4 marks for a certain house in the city of Winchester where the moneyers work," with the remark that "Osbert the moneyer of Wilton owes 2 marks of the service of the same house." Is it to be inferred from this, that the money of the Wilton mint was struck at Winchester, and that these 2 marks were rent for the use of the premises? From these minutes, and from others below, which have reference to the Exchange at Winchester, it would appear that although the mint was still in operation in this city, it was not adequate, or it was not deemed advisable to employ it, for the converting into coin of all the bullion received at the exchange, but that considerable supplies were dispatched from them for the supply of other mints. In the reign of Richard I. a charter was granted to the citizens of Winchester by this monarch in his first year, wherein mention is made of moneyers and certain privileges granted to them; but no coins of this reign from this or any other mint are now known. Throughout this reign the same allowances of 50*l.* in default of 5 moneyers, which had been made to the citizens of Winchester in the reign of Hen. II. was continued annually by Richard I., and during the same period the sheriff continues to render account of "4 marks for the house in the city where the moneyers work." Of John no coins are known, though remaining records show that the mint establishment existed, and was probably in actual operation, for in his ninth year (1207) he granted or rather confirmed to Winchester for ever a mint and an exchange, with all the rights and privileges usually belonging to such establishments; and at the same time he confirmed to the merchants' guild those peculiar privileges which are before stated to have been granted by Richard I. In the same year, the mo-

neyers of fourteen of the principal mints in the kingdom were summoned to attend the king at Westminster on the Quinzime of St. Denys, bringing with them their dies sealed up with their own seals. The moneyers of Winchester were included in this summons, but of the object and result of this meeting no record remains. The writ for Winchester runs thus, A.D. 1207, 9th of John: "The king to all the moneyers and examiners of money and keepers of the dies of Winchester, greeting. We command you, as you love yourselves and goods, that immediately on sight of these letters you do seal with your seals all your dies, and be with them at Westminster within fifteen days from the morrow of St. Denis to hear our commands. And make known unto all the workers of money of your city, and unto those who can give advice in making money, that they be then there with you, and have there these letters. Witness the Lord Peter, Bishop of Winchester, at Westminster, 7th October." In the 17th of John (1215) the following writ appears in Prot. Clause:—"The King to the Mayor of Winchester. We order you to let William de Pavilly have possession of the mint at Winchester, as we have granted it to him during our pleasure. Witness, the King, at Winchester, 3rd of June." On the 9th of July, in the same year, the rent of the mint was assigned to the same William de Pavilly, and by a subsequent writ, dated August 13, in the same year, it appears that this rent was nine marks, i.e. 6*l.* sterling. This was the rent which the corporation had been in the habit of paying to the Crown for the one mint, which remained after the suppression of the five mints in the marketplace by Henry I. It does not appear whether this sum was merely the rent of the premises, or whether it did not include the acknowledgment required for the privilege of coining. It seems probable that the payment was for rent only, although in that case the premises must have been very extensive, and that the grant to William de Pavilly was merely a pecuniary grant or equivalent to it, without conveying to him any privileges, or right of interfering with the operations of the mint; for records and coins both testify that the mint of Winchester was in full work down to a much later period. In the 32nd year of the reign of Henry III. (1248) orders were directed to Winchester to issue a new coinage, the current money having by wear and clipping become exceedingly deteriorated, and after the Octaves of the Epiphany in that year the new money was issued. It would appear that though the election of mint officers was vested in the mayor and corporation, the appointment was not final, for in 1249 Peter Delveday, who had been nominated assayer in the Winchester mint by the corporation, was obliged to take an oath of office in the Court of Exchequer before he could be admitted to that office. In the year 1247 the citizens undertook to give 60*s.*, that the drapery might be removed from the mint into the High-street; but it appears that as late as the 12th year of Edward IV. this sum was not paid. After the reign of Henry III. no mention is made of the mint at Winchester, nor does the name occur upon the coins of any subsequent reign.

At the Architectural Section in the Nisi Prius Court, Mr. HOPE, M.P., read an account of the Priory Church at Christ Church, Hants; Mr. BENJAMIN FERREY (to whom the repairs of Wells Cathedral have been intrusted) some remarks on the Churches of Croyland and Christ Church; and Mr. O. B. CARTER a paper on East Meon Church, Hants.—A correspondent in the *Gentleman's Magazine* of 1816 states, that it is a well-authenticated fact, that Walkelyn, the cousin of the Conqueror, evinced his liberality and taste by the erection of the Church of East Meon, in Hants. Be this as it may, this parish appears to have engaged his special attention. The church, as it at present exists, presents a fine specimen of Norman architecture in its lower and principal door-ways. It was, evidently, a cruciform structure in its original state, lighted by small windows, of which one only at present remains, and is shown on the N.W. angle of the nave. The south aisles, both of the nave and chancel, are, evidently, additions in the early part

* The above is the right date of this writ, which is wrongly assigned to 1209, in Ruding, last ed.

of the thirteenth century; and the manner in which the communication with the south transept is effected, under the flying buttress, is worthy of notice. The east and west windows present indications, in their joint mouldings, of having been insertions of the same period; but they have been subsequently altered, and are, at present, in a very anomalous condition. The straight-sided arch of the south transept is well worthy of notice, and is particularly effective. The pulpit is of stone, and is a very good specimen of perpendicular work. The font is of the same date as the fonts at Winchester Cathedral, and St. Michael's Church, Southampton, and is the work of the same individual. The material of these fonts has been described as black marble; but I have been informed, said Mr. Carter, by a competent authority, that they are of blue lias. The spire is of lead, and from the character of the corbel table which finishes the tower, and is, probably, of the same date, I should assign its erection to the early part of the thirteenth century. In the south-western window of the tower is still suspended the tintinnabulum, or Saint's Bell, by which appellation it is still distinguished."

At the Early and Mediæval Section, Mr. J. GOUGH NICHOLS read a paper on the seals of the Earls of Winchester, on the seals of the City, and on the seals for cloths used by the Kings Aulnager. We have yet to discover the seal granted by Henry III.; and the seal bestowed by Edward I., and engraved in Milan, is not the seal of the corporation, but one of the king's seals for recognizances of debtors, made early in the reign of Edward II., in pursuance of the statute of merchants, which provided such a legal sanction for the recognizance of debts.

At eight on Saturday evening the Dean and Chapter threw open the Cathedral to the members of the Institute:

With how and steps, O moon, thou climb'st the sky,
How silently, and with how wan a face.
Sir Philip Sydney.

But there was no moon for the Institute that evening; and the members were forced to fire their fancies by the poetic imagery of Scott's description of Melrose, and the aid of a few candles lighted for the occasion. Yet the scene was grand and solemn; and the magnificent building, lit up at intervals, and then thrown into deeper shade—darkness visible—the transepts and other vast recesses, had, as seen from the Lady Chapel, a sublime effect. Here, too, the fine swell of the organ pealed upon the ear, and a magnificent line in Milton rushed unhesitatingly to the lips,

And heard the bass of Heaven's deep organ blow.

The temple stood before you as one not made with hands, and the sounds of the organ fell upon your ear as if its stops had been touched by superhuman fingers.

At the evening meeting (the President in the chair), Mr. W. R. HAMILTON read a paper by the Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, on the Distinctions of Styles in Architecture, and their Names; Mr. PETIT a paper, by Mr. WINSTON, on the Painted Glass of Winchester Cathedral. The paper began by observing that the design and execution of glass paintings are as capable of convenient classification as architectural peculiarities, and that he should refer throughout to the three great mediæval styles of glass painting, by the terms Early English, Decorated and Perpendicular, each style being nearly contemporaneous with the several styles of architecture as designed by Rickman. The term *Cinquecento* he should apply to any glass prior to the year 1540, which exhibits in its details the peculiar style of ornament known by that name. The earliest specimens of English glass that he had met with at Winchester, are the two fragments probably of a border worked in with other glass, in the west window of the nave of St. Cross, and two other fragments of a border over the door leading into the refectory. All this glass is of precisely the same character; and to be referred, he was of opinion, to the beginning of the thirteenth century. A few small fragments of later early English are at present contained in the cloister of the college. Two circles of early decorated glass are over the door of the refectory of St. Cross, and two or three more in

the west window of the Cathedral. They are composed of plain pieces of coloured glass, disposed in a geometrical pattern, and prove how much of the effect of early glass is owing to the texture of the material. He would add here, that it appears to have been the practice formerly to glaze the windows according to the progress of the work. Thus at York, the decorated glass in the aisles is earlier than that in the west window of the nave; and the perpendicular glass in the aisles of the choir is earlier than that in the great east window. All the present glass in the side windows of the College Chapel is modern, as well as that in the east, with the trifling exception of two small figures, the head of an angel, and four other little bits of glass in the tracery of the window. Considering the time when the glass in the east window was executed, it must be admitted to be a very good copy of the old. The art of making coloured glass was not so well understood then as now. Had the glass been copied now, it would only have been one degree better than it is. Its effect would still have been that of painted glass, exhibiting the drawing of the early part of the fifteenth century, and the colouring of the nineteenth instead of that of the sixteenth. The texture of all modern manufactured glass, uncoloured as well as coloured, is identical only with that of the sixteenth century, and is totally different from the texture of earlier glass. The principle of adapting the execution to the material pervades all ancient, and indeed all original manufactured work, and it is vain to imitate the drawing without also imitating the material in which the work is to be executed. Hence it is that modern encaustic tiles, whatever may be the date of the pattern impressed upon them, always appear to be of the date of the manufacture of the tile. The east window of the College Library is of the time of Edward IV., and was moved to its present position from the south side of the college chapel. The arms in the refectory at St. Cross are of the latter part of the fifteenth century. Those of Cardinal Beaufort are uncommonly fine. The glass in the east window of the cathedral choir is perhaps a little earlier than 1525, and is the work of Bishop Fox, whose arms and motto, "*Est Deo gratia*," are introduced into it. This window must have been a magnificent one; but it is unfair to judge of it in its present state, when so little occupies its old position in the window. The top central light is filled with glass of Wykeham's time, and all the rest of the window with glass of Fox's time. In point of execution he approached the painted glass in this window was about as perfect as glass could well be. The Library at the Deanery (the room in which the museum was exhibited) contains some excellent specimens of heraldic glass of the time of James I. and Charles I., in which, however, the decline of the art of glass painting is very apparent.

Mr. W. S. VAUX read an amusing paper on the 'Records of the Corporation Chest at Southampton.'—The corporation of Southampton is very rich in MS. documents, rolls, and registers. The first, entitled *Liber Niger*, commencing in 16 Richard II. 1393, and ending in 1620, contains a very curious collection of inrolments of private documents, charters, deeds, and wills. The second, entitled *Liber Remembranciarum* sellæ Southamptoniæ, A.D. 1455, is full of miscellaneous matters of considerable value to the student of the local antiquities of the town, but of little comparative interest to the general reader. Both these books have indexes, though very imperfect ones. The third, entitled *A Book of Fines, Amerciaments, &c.* from A.D. 1489 to 1593. The fourth is indorsed—'Entry of Burgesses from 1496 to 1704,' containing the oaths, ordinances, and the admission of burgesses of this town. At the end of the book is an account of the population of Southampton, taken in 1596, whereby it appears that the sum total, including all residents, was 4,200, of whom the able men amounted to 784. The aliens and family number 297. The fifth, entitled *Book of Remembrances*, for the town of Southampton, beginning the 5th Henry VIII. with the ordinances of the Mayor, &c. and ending in 1601, is a book full of purely local information, with a copious index. Besides these, which are, perhaps, the most important, are many other volumes, containing a vast

amount of information relative to the mediæval history of the town. Among them are *Enrolments of the Statutes Merchant* from 39 Eliz. to 2 James II. *Journal of Corporation Proceedings* from 1602 to 1642. *Brokage Books*, 53 in number, commencing A.D. 1440. *Books of the Assize of Bread* for the years 1482, 1559, 1596, and 1694. *Weighing Books*, three in number, two without date, and the third 1496. *Linen Hall Books*, seven in number, from 1552 to 1569. *Woollen Cloth Hall Books*, for the years 1534, 1569, 1571, 1572, 1574, and 1576. *Master Books*, for the years 1544, 1555, 1567, 1579, 1583, and 1589, and one without date; and at the end of the last book is an account of the number of inhabitants at the time able to bear arms. There is also a *Subscription Book* in aid of the King in 1661; a roll of the steward of Southampton's account for the petty customs of Lymington, Portsmouth, &c. temp. 8 Henry VI. with a large collection of Court Leet Books and Presentments; *Town Court Rolls* of the time of Henry VI. and Admiralty Court Books from 1566 to 1585. Besides these more formal documents there is one book containing matter of the date of Edward I., II. and III., in which will be found brief notices of the charters granted to the different cities and towns of England, and the laws of the guild of Southampton, in Norman French. In the Court Leet Books we find presentments upon almost every subject, and especial care seems (in the early part of the history of Southampton) to have been taken lest any encroachment, however trifling, upon the common property should be allowed to grow up into a *presumptive right*. The most minute circumstances are mentioned, and the greatest care exercised in the preservation, intact, of their early rights. Thus, under date 1567, we find a long presentment regulating the period of the year that cattle shall be placed in the Common, the Saltmarshes, Houndwell, and Hoglands respectively; and "the coward is enjoined not to shift the head of cattle from one field to another without the consent of four men of knowledge, appointed from time to time by the twelve," (that is, jurors of the Court Leet). And again, "The brewers are ordered to dig no clay in the Saltmarsh because it is town land." In 1576, there are complaints and presentments against one Rock, for having encroached with his garden, "the value of half-a-yard, into Houndwell fields." Against others, in 1581, for allowing hogs to run in Maudlin fields or Hoglands, unringed or unyoked, with a fine of 4d. for every hog that shall so appear in future. Against others, for cutting "any manner of bushes, young trees and thorns, which now growth in or about the common of the town," with the penalty of 6s. 8d. against any person so offending; and in 1585, a remonstrance against the *sowing of wood* in Hogland, which was some part of the year common to the inhabitants; and it is stated that the common sort of people, being commoners, find themselves greatly grieved withal, for after *wood sowing* there will grow no grass or anything else for the cattle to feed upon. Many presentments occur as to the state of the highways. In 1574, it is ordered, "That all earth, rubbish, dung and other soil, which lyeth in the streets, shall be carried into the Saltmarsh, and there dispersed; and the inhabitants are recommended to send their servants to help, and appoint others to see it done;" and in 1639 there is a complaint against two persons for a *mizen* on the highway, and against one Greateek for two *mizens* against his door in Houndwell Lane. Other remonstrances occur at various periods, on almost every species of abuse. In 1575 a complaint was lodged against T. Hoskyns, and in his absence the jurors ordered a hedge to be pulled up, whereby he had encroached upon the common. The MS. report adds, "Notwithstanding Hoskyn's wife, being greatly offended therewith, hath not let only to speak of us, but openly declare on Mayday, in the presence of divers others, that when her husband came home it should be set up again in despite of us all, being the Twelves, which if it should be suffered it would not only be the occasion of others to presume the like, but also bring the same on part of the said common by prescription into question, which we pray may be in nowise suffered." Nor does there seem to have been less attention paid to all that concerned the morals and cleanliness

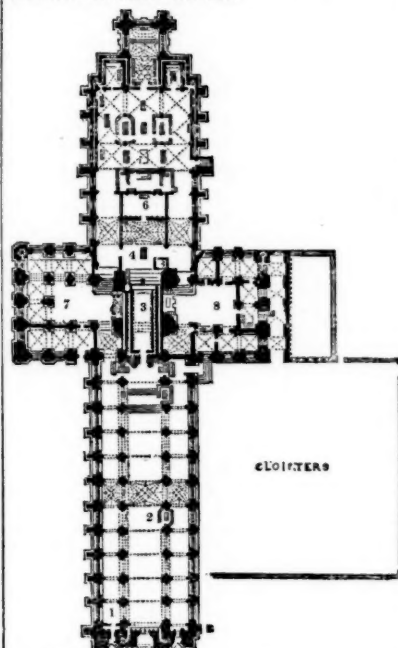
of the town, than to the preservation of manorial rights. Thus, in 1607, "Three churmaydes were presented, two of them because they had no present employment. Both were required to put themselves immediately to service or to leave the town." Again, in 1608, one Warde was presented, "for letting his apprentice go up and down the street; he was ordered to take in the boy to his service, and to give him reasonable correction as the law requireth." Three men were ordered, in 1609, to pay each 3s. 4d., for tipping all the afternoon, and the host to pay 10l.; so also, one Fatnell, inn-holder of the Crown, was fined, in 1632, 10l., for entertaining a dancer and some servants of the town late at night, and in a disorderly manner. In cases of slander and evil-speaking, the same power seems constantly to have been put in force. Thus, in 1608, a woman was ordered to leave the town who had been guilty of slander, and when, a few days later, it was discovered that she had not only not gone away, but had repeated the offence, she was condemned "to be set in the cage with a paper before her;" so too, in 1633, Mrs. Knott "was committed to the workhouse for scolding, brawling, and fighting with the wife of Paul Bovee;" and in cases of greater gravity, a similar power seems to have been exercised with equal judgment. Thus in 1633, we find Elizabeth Mansfield committed to the workhouse for incontinency, which she owned. A man and a woman in 1624 were presented "for keeping company," but were allowed a week in which to leave the town, as they asserted in excuse that they had been asked three times in church, and were shortly going to be married; while somewhat earlier, in 1608, a "— (woman of the town.) by her own confession, was sentenced to be whipped privately in the Town Hall;" but a "— (procurer) publicly at the cart's tail throughout the town." Almost all complaints seem to have been listened to attentively, and the punishments awarded sometimes with a leniency that may appear strange in the present day. Thus in the case of a poor man, who in 1609, from hunger it appears, was driven to steal a lamb and a pig, no other punishment was given him than simply whipping and banishment from the town; while in 1576 there is a presentment (repeated more than once in subsequent years) that "there is a sad want in this town of a *cucking stool*, for the punishment of scolds and such malefactors, which is very necessary to be set up;" and so Kitty Beryl, in 1529, is threatened, if offending again, "to be sent to the cokyn as a scold." While the instances above may be considered as direct interference by means of the Court Leet jury, in favour of the morals of the town and the abatement of nuisances, there are very many instances of the interference of the Mayor and Corporation personally (by complaint or otherwise from individual members of the town,) with the trades existing at the time in the town. Among these we may notice the manner in which the prices of various essential articles of consumption were forcibly determined at a fixed rate; thus in 1606, it is recorded that "the Mayor and Justices of the Peace taking into consideration the price of beer and malt, and finding the price of malt is now sold after *two shillings the bushell* and not above, order that from and after Easter day next, that the beer drawers of this town shall not brew any beer but good beer, and wholesome for man's body; and make nor sell but two sorts of beer, viz. double beer, and ordinary beer, and to sell their double beer at 3s. 4d. the barrell, and their ordinary at 2s. the barrell, and not anie other price whatsoever;" also "that there shall be only six ale brewers within the town, and they to sell their ale a full ale quart within doors, and three pints without doors;" and a few years later, "on the humble suit of the brewers, stating that malt was 2s. the bushell, and hops at 8l. the hundred, order was given that they shall henceforth brew and sell double beer at 4s. the barrell, and ordinarie at 2s. the barrell." Again, in 1609, there is an order that the butchers shall sell all their tallow, good and bad, at 3d. per pound, between Michaelmas and Easter, and 2d. afterwards; and to sell it in open market to none but townsmen." The chandlers are desired to give no more than the above-mentioned price, and to sell their candles at 4d. the pound. It seems that there was a considerable difficulty in regulating the prices of tallow,

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for in 1609 there was a complaint against several chandlers "for in an under-handed manner offering too much money, namely 4d. and 4½d. per lb. for tallow to the butchers, when they might have procured it cheaper, and then sold their candles at 5d. per lb., a matter never heard before." In 1613 there is an order that all vintners of the town shall not sell their Gascoigne wine at more than 6d. the quart; and a similar one in 1633, with the addition of white and red claret! In many cases relative to the hire of horses, we find peculiar care exercised; thus, in 1577, there is an order "that none keeping horses or beasts for hire shall take for a journey of eight days, or under, to London or Bristowe, above 6s. 8d., and that every day after the said eight days be expired, not above 10d. by the day; provided always, that if any man shall ride to Sarum and home again in one day, or the like journey, then to pay 16d. for that day, and not above. In cases of any wilful imposition, punishment constantly followed; thus, in 1609, Christopher Sturges is ordered to pay 3s. 4d. for selling a pint of beer for one penny; and, in 1615, A. Barnard is mentioned as fined 10s. for killing a bull unbaited, and a calf not fitted to be killed; and in 1633, James Rolfe was fined 3s. 4d. for killing a bull without a licence; and there is a curious presentation, "That the butchers have often been warned not to beat their calves or prick their meat, and yet they do so beat and prick their veale, whereby the wind entereth so the flesh swelleth with bobbles, as it were blown, which is unwholesome for man's bodie, for which they are amerced 10s. a-piece." In 1576, Thomas Kelly was presented, for furnishing to a Frenchman a horse at 13s. 6d., for London, which was a fiery jade, and not able to keep company with others, so that the Frenchman was obliged to hire another at Gylford, whereby he is to be amerced 6s. 8d.; and lastly, in 1523, one Hykeman was fined 6s. 8d. for letting out a horse to go to London, not being one of the Hackney men. Many other notices may be found relating to customs existing at various periods in the town, as to the value of different articles of provisions, &c. and the power generally exercised by the mayor and corporation. In 1462, there is a notice of 1s. paid to a man for riding to Winchester "to warn the mayor of the schypps that were under the Wyth (Wight), for him and hys house" (horse). In 1461, the cost of the guild dinner, containing a lengthy enumeration of articles, is mentioned at 22s. 10½d. In 1469, two gallons of whyte wine and two gallons of red wine, sent to Lord Rivers, cost 2s. 8d., and a hogshedd of whyt and red wine, sent to the King (Edward IV.) cost respectively 1l. 3s. 4d. and 16s. 8d.; a gallon of Yperas, given to the King, 2s. 8d.; and a barrel of Malmsey, given to the Queen's receiver, 9s. Again, paid to Lord Arundel, for six minstrells, 3s. 4d.; and a similar sum to those belonging to Lord Winchester; and there is a note that in the same year there was expended 12 12s. 6d., when the mayor rode to London, with the Erle of Warwick and was there twelve days; and, in 1609, it appears, from a complaint made to the Court Leet jury, that oats were selling at 2s. 8d. per bushell, at which time an order was given to sell them at 2s. in future; and, in 1616, "an ordinarie for eating the bucks, sent by the Erle of Southampton, is fixed at 2s. 6d. a piece, and 8d. the waiter." In 1579, on a suspicion against Widow Walker, there is a request "That five or six honest matrons do see her stripped, to the end to see whether she have any bludy mark upon her body, which is a common token to know all witches by." In 1608, there is an order that the barbers shall not henceforth trye anie person on the Sabbath-Day, unless if be such gentlemen strangers as shall on that day resort to the town, on the forfeiture of 6s. 8d. In 1609, there was an order that "The watch usually set by the Sheriff on Trinitie Fair, shall not be set on Trinity-Sunday, for fear of profaning the Sabbath;" and in 1641 it was directed that on Sunday morning, during divine service and sermon, all the gates of the town shall be kept shut, excepting the wickets of Bar-gate and Water-gate. In 1629, special leave was given to one Onesimus Hayne to set up a writing school. In 1634 it is stated that Abraham Lelander "is to be town post; he is to go towards London on the Mondays, and to return to Southampton on the Saturdays." In 1638 permis-

sion is given to Jacob Thringe to set up a fencing-school, on the condition he shall depart the town next Ladye-day; and in 1677, an order is given that "the brewers be commanded to use no more iron-bound carts, for that is a great decay, not only to the paved streete, but also causeth his beere to work uppe in such sorte, that as his barrel seemeth to be full when they are brought, and when they are settled they lack some a gallon of beere, and some more, to the enriching of the brewers and to the great defayte and hindrance of the town."

So much of what was most interesting in this visit, was connected with the Cathedral, that we think a ground plan will be acceptable to the members, and serve for future reference.



1. Consistory Court.
2. Font.
3. Choir.
4. Rufus's Tomb.
6. Altar.
7. N. Transept.
8. S. Transept.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

THE Association for Promoting Cleanliness among the Poor has published its first quarter's report; and that report is, even at this early stage of the proceedings, an answer to objectors and an argument for its supporters. The good which it has already done, is proof acquired that the institution was needed; and the old assertion, that the poor would not use the boon thus offered to them, may be considered as disposed of, to a sufficient extent, by the experiments here and elsewhere. The number of poor persons who have bathed and washed their clothes, during the quarter, at the Asylum in Glasshouse-street, has been 13,422—giving an average exceeding 1,000 per week. One thousand recipients of this relief, divided between the two several forms in which it is administered, are, in the swarming multitudes of London's struggling poor, no very large relative number—but that number expresses, nevertheless, a large amount of positive good—were this even its numerical limit. In other places, however, which took the lead of London in this effort for the humble, the example has been progressive; and, as we have already ventured to predict, the hundreds in the present result will soon be thousands, in view of the comfort which it will bring. The moral results remain to be developed in a ratio which the figure cannot express; for although it is probable that, in the beginnings of this social experiment, the already existing sentiment of cleanliness will take the earliest frequenters where they can thus practise the habit—yet, it is certain that many who may be led by other considerations (such as the influence of example) to

the bath and the wash-house, will there find it—and so bring away, with the gift they went to seek, a far higher thing than itself. The moral consequence, in return, will long continue to influence the increase of the figure—but ultimately leave it far behind—the one having a limit somewhere, and the other none. Of the number above stated, 6,318 were bathers, and 7,104 washers; and the number of articles washed has amounted to 61,595. The division of the aggregate number of 13,422 into nations exhibits certain results which, on the first view of them, seem curious and somewhat at variance with received prejudices. The number of Irish bathers is 3,643, while the Scotch are only 161. The difference in the several amounts contributed generally by the two countries to the London population will, of course, account for a great part of this particular difference; but we cannot think it is in anything like the ratio of one of the former to nearly twenty-three of the latter:—while the number of English bathers, too, which should surely be more, is about one-third less than the Irish—being 2,389. The Welsh bathers are 52, and the foreign ones 73. The washing statistics exhibit the same differences as the bathing, though in a less proportion:—Irish, 3,631—English, 3,194—Scotch, 173—Welsh, 56—foreign, 68. To all these, the accommodations were gratuitous; and their continuance is, of course, dependent on subscription—the expense averaging a fraction less than 1½d. per head. The association is, we understand, in want of funds—and will, we trust, find them. One argument has been used against this new form of charity—which, unlike other objections that we have had to combat, is respectable in its character—though, we entirely believe, wrong in its conclusions. The poor, it is said, want clothes rather than the means of washing them, and a satisfied stomach more than a clean outside. This argument would not deserve an answer, if it only meant that a poor man should be dirty because he is hungry, and that the single garment should not be washed because he has no more. It proceeds upon the assumption that there is but a given amount of charity in the land; and that the increase of the divisor representing the number of its objects must diminish the quotient applicable to each, in a rule strictly arithmetical. If we thought that the pound given to the poor man's wash-house was a pound necessarily abstracted from the supply of his first and most pressing necessity, then we could have not an instant's hesitation in deprecating the diversion of a fund so sacred, and already so inadequate to the demand upon it. But we do not believe the virtue to exist under any such conditions. We believe that charity is an elastic quality—like others, enlarging by its own practice, and expanding to embrace the multiplication of its objects. The subscription withheld from this association by the objection, does not, we imagine, go to swell the other and more important fund—but is so much absolutely lost to the general cause of charity. There is, we believe, benevolence enough in the land for all worthy purposes, if it be properly appealed to—and, at any rate, a vast deal more than has been yet exhausted; and the sentiment is lowered when one charity is denounced, in the name of another. If the proposition were really an alternative one—if the question were whether the toiling man should dine or bathe—our voice, with those of nature and religion, would be for dinner: but he who dines well, dines all the more pleasantly for being washed; and even the cheerless banquets of Duke Humphrey derive a sickly comfort to the guest from his being clean.—The report adds, that the committee of the association have established baths and wash-tubs for those who choose to pay 2d. for the former, and 1d. per hour for the latter with the use of the drying-room:—this part of the institution being, at the rate given above, a self-supporting one.

The daily papers announce the death of Mr. William Upcott, the well-known former librarian to the London Institution, and zealous literary collector. In the latter capacity, he had a sort of European reputation—the Autographs, brought together by him during a long course of years, forming one of the most valuable collections of the kind existing, and a body of reference both to his countrymen and to the foreigner.

From Berlin, we hear of the death of another literary veteran, the Baron Ferdinand Theodore de

Liechtenstein—a dramatic poet of distinction; to whom the German stage owes a large number of original productions, and many translations from the operatic drama of the French. Possessed of an ample fortune, M. de Liechtenstein's passion for his art was not restrained by any of those unspiritual considerations which temper the enthusiasm of the less-favoured of fortune—"making I cannot wait upon I would." For many years he performed gratuitously the functions of manager of the Grand Opera of Berlin,—and subsequently, those of vice-director of the music of the same theatre.

The ill-starred world of the Polish Emigration has to deplore the loss, at Passy, at the premature age of 48, of one of the most distinguished writers of its body,—Madame Hoffman, whose maiden and national name was Tanska. Her works were principally directed to the business of moral education; and the first of them, which passed through fifteen editions, was published at the early age of 18. The attention of the Government was soon drawn to the value of her productions; and she was still in her youth, when she was appointed Inspectress-in-chief of the schools and boarding-houses for young women throughout the now-deceased kingdom of Poland. In 1831, she accompanied her husband into exile, and took up her abode in Paris; where she continued her literary labours,—publishing at Leipsic and Breslau, and thence circulating her works throughout all the provinces of Poland. At the wish of her friends, she had undertaken an historical work, destined for the especial instruction of the youth amongst her countrymen, when death brought to a close her useful and honoured career.

The French papers mention the arrival of Washington Irving at Bordeaux,—charged by his government with a diplomatic mission. From Paris, we hear that the Royal Council of Public Instruction has requested the Minister to place in the hall of its deliberations, beside the portrait of M. de Fontanes, the likeness of M. Royer Collard,—for the sake of the honour which, both as Professor of Philosophy and as President of the Committee of Public Instruction, he has reflected on the University; and that the official approbation of the Minister was immediately communicated, in reply.

It is a remarkable fact, that the tombs of the two greatest German composers of the last century, Gluck and Mozart, should have had the same strange fate of oblivion; so complete, in the case of each, that, up to the present time, no man has been able to "show where they have laid him." The grave of the latter, in spite of anxious inquiry, is yet to seek; and the reader will remember the summons sent, a year or two ago, by the Austrian government, to his aged widow, to come up to the capital, in her extreme decline, that she might help, by the flickering light of her almost burnt-out memory, in seeking for the place where, fifty years before, she had left the husband of her youth. Up this long vista of half a century of widowhood her thoughts travelled in vain. The fame of the illustrious dead has accompanied her all that time, brightening the weary way; but the tomb itself lies in the shadow of that far past,—and will never be known, save by some such accident as has just revealed the resting-place of Gluck. In repairing one of the walls of the village of Mutzleindorf, near Vienna, the workmen found, inclined against the base of the wall, below the level of the soil, a small tablet of grey marble, engraved with the following inscription, in the German tongue and Roman characters:—"Here reposes a brave German, zealous Christian, and faithful spouse,—Christopher Chevalier de Gluck, a great master in the sublime art of music. He died on the 15th November, 1787."

A circumstance of a rather curious nature, and very significant of a struggle between the spirit of freedom inherent in the press itself, and the power that fetters it—to come at no distant day,—has recently taken place in Copenhagen. A few months ago, when the King of Prussia arrived in the port of that city, and just as he was about to step into the boat which was to take him ashore, some sparks, escaping from the chimney of the steamer, set fire to the flag that bore the royal arms of Prussia, and consumed it. This trifling incident a Copenhagen journal, called *Fædrelandet* (The Country), made the ground of an article wherein the Editor, Mr.

John Henry Gjoedwad, predicted the approaching fall of absolute royalty in Prussia, and indulged in certain pleasantries at the cost of King Frederick William's religious and political opinions. For this offence against the Royal guest, the Government ordered the prosecution of the Editor; and the Correctional Tribunal condemned him to certain penalties, including a fine of 2000 rix-dollars (about 200*l.*), and the payment of the costs, amounting to about 80*l.* more:—a sentence which was, on appeal, confirmed by the Royal Court of Copenhagen and the Supreme Court of the Kingdom, successively. On default of payment, the Government made a seizure in Mr. Gjoedwad's house, and advertised his library for sale by auction on a given day. Early in the morning of that day, the place of sale was filled to overflowing; and the first volume put up was a Danish translation of La Rochefoucauld's *Maxims*,—a small pamphlet offered at the price of 16 skilling, about 9*d.* But scarcely had the biddings reached a few pence more, ere a voice from the midst of the crowd exclaimed, "I bid 3000 rix-dollars for it" (300*l.*); and an elderly gentleman, stepping out, handed over the sum in bank notes. The treasury agent declared the Government demand satisfied; and the sale was abruptly closed, amid the plaudits of the spectators. The purchaser is a merchant of Copenhagen, named Falkenberger; and the Society for Promoting the Freedom of the Press has unanimously elected him an honorary member,—and sent his diploma, enclosed in a box of silver-gilt, by a deputation of its body.

The workmen employed in the restoration of the Cathedral at Brunswick, have made a discovery of great interest. In removing the plaster coating from one of the lateral walls of the nave, they have found the latter covered with fresco paintings in its entire length and breadth. These are divided into compartments,—each one containing a subject from the life of Duke Henry, surnamed the Lion, born in 1129, and who died in 1195—the founder of the city of Brunswick and builder of the Cathedral. The paintings are of the highest finish; but have, unhappily, suffered much from the removal of the plaster which overlaid them, notwithstanding the utmost precautions used in the operation. The government has ordered their careful restoration,—as also their publication by engraving. They are supposed to be of the 14th or 15th century. It is hoped that other frescoes will be found in the same edifice—probably on the opposite lateral wall, at any rate.

DIORAMA, REGENT'S PARK.—REDUCED PRICE OF ADMITTANCE.—Now OPEN, with a new and highly interesting exhibition, representing the CASTLE and TOWN of HEIDELBERG (formerly the residence of the Electors Palatine of the Rhine) under the various aspects of Winter and Summer, Mid-day and Evening; and the exterior view of the CATHEDRAL of NOTRE DAME at Paris, as seen at Sunset and by Moonlight, and which has been so universally admired. Both pictures are painted by Le Chevalier Reoux. Open from 10 till 5. Admittance to view both Pictures—Saloon, 1*s.*; Stalls, 2*s.* as heretofore.

FINE ARTS

HISTORICAL PAINTERS VERSUS DECORATORS.

I trust you will, in common justice to the historical painters of Great Britain, afford space for the following facts and observations, which must have escaped your attention when you inserted the paragraphs [in No. 932] relating to the memorial of the unsuccessful exhibitors in Westminster Hall, and the decorators who exhibited at the Bazaar in King-street, St. James's.

The Royal Commission was established for the sole object of "inquiring whether advantage might not be taken of the rebuilding of the Houses of Parliament, for the purpose of promoting and encouraging the Fine Arts in the United Kingdom, and in what manner an object of so much importance would be most EFFECTUALLY PROMOTED." And the declaration of the object of the commission, as put forth in their secretary's paper in the first report, shows that they stand in the situation of trustees for the benefit of those "higher classes of Art" which "do not, and cannot expect to meet with adequate private encouragement." See, also, Mr. Hallam's valuable paper in the third report [Ath. No. 881].

And how have they performed their trust? By devoting the proceeds of the Exhibitions of *Works of Art*—which they do not attempt to deny belong to the collective body of exhibitors at Westminster Hall—to the expenses of an exhibition of glass-

staining, arabesque painting, wood carving, ornamental metal-work, and ornamental pavements,—mere house decoration, with which the Commission have no authority to interfere, and with which the artists have the greater reason to complain of being mixed up, as degrading them to the level of mechanics, instead of elevating them, or even leaving them their original standing as gentlemen, as they had a right to expect, from the terms in which the objects of the Commission were prescribed. Yet you consider this answer as "kind and conclusive." The trustees have betrayed their trust, and spent money they had no right to touch, in speculations they had no right to undertake; but because they say they have so done, you think that the just claims of the *cesteigne trust* are conclusively barred from all satisfaction. Would this answer be of any avail in a private case? Would not trustees so defaulting always be required to replace the money so misappropriated?

In your next paragraph, you quote from a writer in the *Spectator* on the case of the decorators, which you consider better founded. You and that writer can see there "a breach of faith to the parties so called, but not chosen,"—"great pecuniary sacrifices on the strength of the call," (which, be it remembered, the Commission had no authority to make); and further, "that the country will have reason to be dissatisfied if so grand an opportunity be lost for calling out any original talent in ornamental design that it can furnish, and employing it when found." But has not the conduct of the Commission been especially a "breach of faith" to the historical painters, in appropriating the proceeds of the exhibition of their works, produced by far greater "pecuniary sacrifices," and a hundred times more mental exertion than is required or exercised by ornamental designers,—to the payment of the expenses of that exhibition of mechanical works, with which they had no authority to interfere? Is it not a breach of faith, after the announcement in Parliament, which all must remember, "that the proceeds of the exhibition in Westminster Hall would be given to some public charity," which was further understood to be, one connected with the Fine Arts,—to appropriate the proceeds to the expenses of the commission, which ought to be defrayed by the State, and still more gross and insulting to jumble up the expenses legitimately incurred in prosecuting their inquiry as to the Fine Arts, with the expenses incurred in their unsuccessful speculation, the encouragement of trade, which the Commission had no authority to enter into? Or, are we to consider decorative art to be the high class of Fine Art which the Commission is appointed to encourage, and that the historical painters are only allowed to exhibit that they may have the honour of producing the funds to meet the expenses of the exhibition of works in that higher branch,—decoration, which has proved unable to meet its own? Will not the country have reason to be dissatisfied, if so grand an opportunity be lost for calling out any original talent in historical painting "that it can furnish, and employing it when found"? or is it only in decorative art that it is to be so jealous?

I have confined myself to the breach of faith, the subject of the memorial, and your observations; but has not the conduct of the Commission been a continued series of breaches of faith with the historical painters, of far more importance than the question of the disposal of the funds which have accidentally fallen into their hands?

Did they not first ask for "works of high class" "belonging to the domain of thought," "works requiring that abstract treatment that renders nudity unobjectionable," "works not of local interest, the acts of illustrious individuals, nor the commemoration of national events, but the grander and more ideal subjects,—painting in its most didactic form?" and were not ten out of the eleven prizes, the acts of illustrious individuals, or the commemoration of national events? Did any of them exhibit that "abstract treatment that renders nudity unobjectionable"?

Have they not admitted, in the front of the Catalogue of the second exhibition, that they had excluded "the works of artists of acknowledged ability," "historical works of high class and high treatment, for the blunders of plasterers, or "inexperience of a new material" while they took in a fresco of a man drinking a pot of beer? and did they not admit that

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notwithstanding they had ample space they had "hung works of acknowledged merit in the vestibule" where they could not be seen, because they had violated one of the conditions of the programme, by being too late, while they hung up various heads which had equally violated other conditions by being too small, and a Cartoon by Armitage which not only violated that, but another condition by being in colour—and have they not, on the last occasion, awarded the three prizes to works which violate the condition of "coloured sketches" required by the programme, for neither that of Mr. Paton, Mr. Armitage, nor even of Mr. Tenniel, can fairly be called coloured sketches? But I should take up too much of your space if I were to point out all the breaches of faith with the historical painters. These are a few that lie on the surface and may be tested by anybody, and are sufficient to show that the Commission for the promotion and encouragement of historical painting have manifested the most reckless indifference to the success of the artists and the art they were expressly appointed to encourage.

I am, &c. AN HISTORICAL PAINTER.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

HAYMARKET.—An amusing drama, in one act, called 'A Cabinet Question,' by Mr. Planché, was produced here on Monday, with Mr. Buckstone for the hero—one Tom Polish, foreman to an upholsterer and cabinet-maker, who has performed the romantic feat of saving from imminent danger a lady of rank, by stopping her horses when running away with the carriage. Being asked for his name, Tom gives that of Alfonso Montmorency, from a novel with which he had just been amusing his leisure. To support the character thus assumed, Tom then runs in debt with his tailor; and, moreover, to gain a sight of his mistress, goes to the expense of frequently visiting the pit of the opera, where more than once he is recognized, and his passion corroborated by a smile from the boxes. While thus infatuated, Tom ungratefully repulses the advances of his master's daughter, Lucy Harwood (Miss Julia Bennett), until the lady herself enters the shop on business, when an explanation taking place, Tom is disabused of his insane expectations; and soon after, indeed, becomes the instrument of again serving her, in a love affair of her own, by preventing her lover from going to China, and aiding in the discovery of a will, concealed in the secret drawer of a cabinet, made by his master, which leaves to the young gentleman in question a handsome property, and to himself a legacy of a thousand pounds. Thus provided with the gifts of fortune, no difficulties lie in the way of either couple, who, of course, make up their minds to be forthwith united. The tact and experience shown in this piece rendered it safe throughout, and the real wit and talent of the dialogue insured it, at the fall of the curtain, a triumphant reception.

MISCELLANEA

Paris Academy of Sciences.—Sept. 8.—The most important communication was made by M. Pouillet, on the storm, near Rouen, of the 19th ult. The owners of the property destroyed, on that occasion, have brought an action for indemnity against the insurance companies; assigning as the ground of action that the destruction was the result of electricity, and that they are therefore entitled to recover. According to the clause in their policies, which provides compensation for loss from lightning (*feu de ciel*), several reports, declaring that electricity was present in the storm, and that the buildings were thrown down, not by the force of the blast of wind, but really by an electrical current,—and even going so far as to assert that fire was visible,—have been received by the Academy. The insurance companies, on their side, have not been idle. They have had recourse to M. Pouillet, as one of the most eminent men to whom on such a subject it was possible to apply; and that gentleman has made investigations on the spot,—the result of which, M. Pouillet says that electricity had nothing to do with the calamity in question. It is possible that the tribunal before which the claims of the insurers will be brought, will appoint a scientific commission to report on the subject.—M. Biot presented an apparatus which is used, in Germany, by the sugar manufacturers, to try the strength and character of their syrup, and also by medical men as a test in diabetic

urine. It is of simple construction. It consists of two concentric prisms of nickel; one of which is fixed, whilst the other, to which the eye is applied, is movable. They are separated by a tube, which is filled with the solution to be examined. The two prisms are so placed that the light polarized by the first may be refused by the second. The solution is now introduced. A coloured object is seen, which is at first blue. The movable prism is then turned until the object is yellow. The angle of rotation to arrive at this tint gives, by means of a table, the quantity of crystallizable sugar contained in the solution.—M. Bourguay read a paper, to prove the existence of nerves in the serous membranes.—A paper was received from M. Matteucci on the electrical powers of the torpedo. He shows that the discharge proceeds from a particular part of the body, between the back and the belly,—and not, as has been asserted, from all parts.

Sept. 15.—Several communications were received relative to the disease which has manifested itself in the potato.—A letter was read from M. de la Rive, on the possibility of rendering the electric light available for the use of workmen in mines. This gentleman states that five or six elements of a pile of copper and an amalgam of potassium sufficed to render incandescent two cones of charcoal inclosed in a small glass globe.—Messrs. Ledoyen and Raphael announced that they had obtained a liquid of great utility, for the purpose of disinfection in the emanations from animal excretions, by dissolving 4 oz. of nitrate of lead in two pounds of water.

Romsey Abbey Church.—Since the visit of *The Archaeological Institute* to this fine old church, a discovery of some interest has been made there, the particulars of which may be collected from the following letter from Mr. Ferrey, the architect:—

It may not be uninteresting to your readers to know that on Monday, the 15th inst., during the progress of the works now carrying on in the restoration of Romsey Abbey Church, a discovery of some importance was made. I should inform you that it was found necessary to move a large Purbeck stone slab to the extent of two or three feet, in order to prevent its concealment by the intended flooring of some seats. From the circumstance of this slab being 11 ft. 6 in. long, by 3 ft. 9 in., and once ornamented by a large floriated cross of brass, of which the impression now remains, I was not without expectation that it might cover a stone coffin. Great care was, therefore, exercised in raising the stone. Upon its being moved, there was discovered, immediately under it, a stone coffin, 5 ft. 10 in. long, by 2 ft. wide in the broadest part, and one foot deep, containing the skeleton of a priest, in good preservation, the figure measuring only 5 ft. 4 in. in length, the head elevated and resting in a hollow cavity worked out of the stone, so as to form a cushion. He had been buried in the vestments peculiar to his office, viz. the alb and tunic. Over his left arm was the *maniple*, and in his hand the chalice, covered with the paten. Considering these remains to be at least 200 years old, it is remarkable that they should be in such preservation. The chalice and the paten are of pewter, the latter much corroded; a great portion of the linen alb remain; the maniple is of brown velvet, fringed at the extremity, and lined with silk; portions of the stockings remain, and also all the parts of the boots, though, from the decay of the sewing, they have fallen to pieces. About two feet from the end of the coffin is a square hole through the bottom, with channels worked in the stone conducting to it. This was probably a provision to carry off the fluids which would be caused by the decomposition of the body. On the sides of the coffin could be traced the marks of the corpse where it was first deposited, from which it would appear that the deceased had been stout, as well as short in stature. It is to be regretted that the inscription being stripped from the verge of the slab, we have no means of knowing whose remains these are. The Purbeck marble slab had never been disturbed, being found strongly secured by mortar to the top of the stone coffin. It is curious that the covering should be so gigantic, and the coffin under it so small. Judging from the size of the slab and the beauty of the large floriated cross, it might have been supposed to cover some dignified ecclesiastic. This is clearly not the case; the vestments found being such only as belong to the humblest grade of the clergy. Perhaps the great size of the cross on the slab (which has, indeed, the peculiarities of a processional cross) may be intended to designate the office of the deceased, whose duty it might have been (if a sub-deacon) to carry the cross on solemn festivals. This is, however, mere conjecture; but it can scarcely be concluded that a Purbeck marble slab, of such magnitude as compared to the coffin, would be fixed, without some special reason, or meaning. In the absence of any known date, judging from the impression on the marble, and the shape of the stone coffin, I should assign both to the early part of the fourteenth century. I remain, &c.

BENJAMIN FERREY.

Miss Kelly's Theatre.—In general it should be made a point of principle, not to notice an amateur performance in any public journal. If a party of gentlemen choose to hire a theatre for their amusement, and invite their friends to witness them, it is as unfair to select them as a mark for reprehension as to write a critique on the turbot or the haunch of mutton with which the giver of a dinner party regales his private guests. We have, however, found an

occasion to depart from this general principle. The remarkable nature of the performance we are about to notice might of itself be almost a sufficient excuse, but we find our full justification in the fact that there was nothing that could incur censure even according to a severe standard of criticism, and further, in the belief that publicity will not be disagreeable to the persons immediately concerned. The fact is, that a party of gentlemen, well known to the literary world, performed Ben Jonson's admirable comedy of *Every Man in his Humour*, on Saturday night. We subjoin the cast, which is a complete curiosity:—

Kitely	Mr. Forster
Knowell	Mr. Mayhew
Captain Bobadil	Mr. Charles Dickens
Brainworm	Mr. Mark Lemon
Edward Knowell	Mr. Frederick Dickens
Downright	Mr. Douglas Jerrold
Master Stephen	Mr. Leech
Master Matthew	Mr. Augustus Dickens
Thomas Cash	Mr. Leigh
Oliver Cob	Mr. Frank Stone
Justice Clement	Mr. Evans
Roger Fomall	Mr. A. A. Beckett
William	Mr. W. Jerrold
James	Miss Fortescue
Dame Kitely	Unknown.
Mrs. Bridget	
Tib	

To all persons conversant with the current literature of the day, the above names will be perfectly familiar. Mr. Forster is celebrated as a connoisseur of the drama, and as the biographer of the republican statesmen whose lives were published in *Lardner's Cyclopædia*. Mr. Charles Dickens is the immortal "Boz"; Mr. Mark Lemon is the writer of several successful pieces, and, if report be trusted, the editor of *Punch*; Mr. Dudley Costello is the author of several popular tales; Mr. Douglas Jerrold is one of the most powerful supporters of *Punch*, and the first comic dramatist of the day; Mr. Leech is the caricaturist to *Punch*; Mr. Mayhew and Mr. Leigh are contributors to the same periodical, the former being, moreover, a successful dramatist, and the latter the author of the *Comic Grammar*. Miss Fortescue is the intelligent and interesting actress of the Haymarket Theatre.—*The Times*.

Cambridge.—As you kindly inserted some account of the discoveries lately made in Jesus College Chapel, perhaps you will do the same by the following notice of some minor works in the same university. And first:—some researches made in the Chapel-hall of Queen's College have brought to light a fine roof of oak existing above the present flat ceilings of plaster. That in the hall is a valuable example of a high-pitched open roof,—probably the finest specimen now visible in the University; though we cannot say how beautiful the roofs may be which are still concealed by the flat ceilings in the halls of Christ's, Magdalen and Peterhouse. There can be little doubt, from the date of those buildings, and the external appearance of the roofs, which still retain their original pitch, that timber framework of the usual character still remains above the miserable lath and plaster work of the last century. Sidney and Emmanuel are of later date,—but quite early enough to make it probable that similar roofs remain there. It is to be hoped that, before long, some researches will be set on foot in all of the above-named colleges; and if it be found that the original character of the roofs has not been quite destroyed by the Paganizing mania of the last century, that they will be all restored. Queen's Hall is, we understand, immediately to resume its original appearance. The ceiling in the chapel—the destruction of which, with its curious painting, in the middle of the last century, is so feelingly lamented by Cole,—was of inferior character to that of the Hall; but still infinitely more beautiful than the dismal flat expanse of unornamented whitewash which now deforms the chapel, cutting off the head of the east window,—which, we understand, is to be restored, and filled with stained glass. We hope this is an earnest of the good work of restoration, which is so much needed in many of the chapels of our colleges. The original ceiling of Magdalen Chapel still remains,—the rich oaken beams projecting into the rooms which have been formed in the gable of the roof. Christ's Chapel has been much injured, by removing the mullions from the windows and plastering between the beams. These, and many other of our sacred edifices, cry loudly for the hand of restoration to be employed on them. Under the direction of the Master of Trinity

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Name in full
Profession (if any) and professional residence, in full
Residence in full
Reference
Date
Signature of applicant.

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6, Great Winchester-street, 22, Regent-street, September 23rd, 1845.

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